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THE STATE OF NEW YORK
IN SENATE,
January 1, 1891.

REPORT

OF THE
COMMISSIONERS OF THE LAND OFFICE

FOR THE YEAR 1890.

ALBANY: J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO., PRINTERS.
1891.

THE LAND OFFICE OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, created by Chapter 108 of the Laws of 1882, has the honor to submit herewith its report for the year 1890. The report is divided into two parts, the first of which contains a general statement of the condition of the land office at the beginning of the year, and the second a statement of the work done during the year. The first part is divided into three sections, the first of which contains a statement of the condition of the land office at the beginning of the year, the second a statement of the work done during the year, and the third a statement of the condition of the land office at the end of the year. The second part is divided into two sections, the first of which contains a statement of the work done during the year, and the second a statement of the condition of the land office at the end of the year. The report is divided into two parts, the first of which contains a general statement of the condition of the land office at the beginning of the year, and the second a statement of the work done during the year. The first part is divided into three sections, the first of which contains a statement of the condition of the land office at the beginning of the year, the second a statement of the work done during the year, and the third a statement of the condition of the land office at the end of the year. The second part is divided into two sections, the first of which contains a statement of the work done during the year, and the second a statement of the condition of the land office at the end of the year.

I. THE STATE AND EDUCATION.

THE RIGHT AND THE DUTY OF THE STATE TO ESTABLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

ENGLISH AUTHORITIES.

I hold that it is the right and duty of the State to provide for the education of the common people. I conceive the arguments by which this position may be proved are perfectly simple, perfectly obvious, and the most cogent possible. * * * All are agreed that it is the sacred duty of every government to take effectual measures for securing the persons and property of the community; and that the government which neglects that duty is unfit for its situation. This being once admitted, I ask, can it be denied that the education of the common people is the most effectual means of protecting persons and property? On that subject I can not refer to higher authority, or use more strong terms, than have been employed by Adam Smith; and I take his authority the more readily, because he is not very friendly to State interference; and almost on the same page as that I refer to, he declares that the State ought not to meddle with the education of the higher orders; but he distinctly says that there is a difference, particularly in a highly civilized and commercial community, between the education of the higher classes and the education of the poor. The education of the poor he pronounces to be a matter in which government is most deeply concerned; and he compares ignorance, spread through the lower classes, neglected by the State, to a leprosy, or some other fearful disease, and says that where this duty is neglected, the State is in danger of falling into the terrible disorder. He had scarcely written this than the axiom was fearfully illustrated in the riots of 1780. I do not know if from all history I could select a stronger instance of my position, when I say that ignorance makes the persons and property of the community unsafe, and that the government is bound to take measures to prevent that ignorance. On that occasion, what was the state of things? Without any shadow of a grievance, at the summons of a madman, 100,000 men rising in insurrection—a week of anarchy—Parliament besieged—your predecessor, sir, trembling in the Chair—the Lords pulled out of their coaches—the Bishops flying over the tiles—not a sight, I trust, that would be pleasurable even to those who are now so unfavorable to the church of England—thirty-six fires blazing at once in London—the house of the Chief Justice sacked—the children of the Prime Minister taken out of their beds in their night clothes, and laid on the table of the horse guards—and all this the effect of nothing but the gross, brutish ignorance of the population, who had been left brutes in the midst of Christianity, savages in the midst of civilization. Nor is this the only occasion when similar results have followed from the same cause. To this cause are attributable all the outrages of the Bristol and Nottingham riots, and all the misdeeds of General Rook and Captain Swing; incendiary fires in some district, and in others riots against machinery, tending more than anything else to degrade men to the level of the inferior animals. Could it have been supposed that all this could have taken place in a community where even the common laborer to have his mind opened by education, and be taught to find his pleasure in the exercise of his intellect, taught to revere his Maker, taught to regard his fellow-creatures with kindness, and taught likewise to feel respect for legitimate authority, taught how to pursue redress of real wrongs by constitutional methods?

* * * Take away education, and what are your means? Military force, prisons, solitary cells, penal colonies, gibbets—all the other apparatus of penal laws. If, then, there be an end to which government is bound to attain—if there are two ways only of attaining it—if one of those ways is by elevating the moral and intellectual character of the people, and if the other way is by inflicting pain, who can doubt which way every government ought to take? It seems to me that no proposition can be more strange than this—that the State ought to have power to punish and is bound to punish its subjects for not knowing their duty, but at the same time is to take no step to let them know what their duty is.

I say, therefore, that the education of the people ought to be the first concern of a State, not only because it is an efficient means of promoting and obtaining that which all allow to be the main end of government, but because it is the most efficient, the most humane, the most civilized, and in all respects the best means of attaining that end. This is my deliberate conviction; and in this opinion I am fortified by thinking that it is also the opinion of all the great legislators, of all the great statesmen, of all the great political philosophers of all ages and of all nations, even including those whose general opinion is, and has ever been, to restrict the functions of government. Sir, it is the opinion of all the greatest champions of civil and religious liberty in the old world and in the new; and of none—I hesitate not to say it—more emphatically than of those whose names are held in the highest estimation by the Protestant Nonconformists of England. Assuredly if there be any class of men whom the Protestant Nonconformists of England respect more highly than another—if any whose memory they hold in deeper veneration—it is that class of men, of high spirit and unconquerable principles, who in the days of Archbishop Laud preferred leaving their native country, and living in the savage solitudes of a wilderness, rather than to live in a land of prosperity and plenty, where they could not enjoy the privilege of worshipping their Maker freely according to the dictates of their conscience. Those men, illustrious for ever in history, were the founders of the commonwealth of Massachusetts; but though their love of freedom of conscience was illimitable and indestructible, they could see nothing servile or degrading in the principle that the State should take upon itself the charge of the education of the people. In the year 1642 they passed their first legislative enactment on this subject, in the preamble of which they distinctly pledged themselves to this principle, that education was a matter of the deepest possible importance and the greatest possible interest to all nations and to all communities, and that as such it was, in an eminent degree, deserving of the peculiar attention of the State. I have peculiar satisfaction in referring to the case of America, because those who are the most enthusiastic advocates of the voluntary principle in matters of religion, turn fondly to that land as affording the best illustration that can be any where found of the successful operation of that principle. And yet what do we find to be the principle of America and of all the greatest men that she has produced upon the question? "Educate the people," was the first admonition addressed by Penn to the commonwealth he founded—"educate the people" was the last legacy of Washington to the republic of the United States—"educate the people" was the unceasing exhortation of Jefferson. Yes, of Jefferson himself; and I quote his authority with peculiar favor; for of all the eminent public men that the world ever saw, he was the one whose greatest delight it was to pare down the functions of governments to the lowest possible point, and to leave the freest possible scope for the exercise of individual exertion. Such was the disposition—such, indeed, might be said to be the mission of Jefferson; and yet the latter portion of his life was devoted with ceaseless energy to the effort to procure the blessing of a State education for Virginia. And against the concurrent testimony of all these great authorities, what have you, who take the opposite side, to show? * * * Institutions for the education of the people are on every ground the very description of institutions which the government, as the guardians of the people's best interests, are bound to interfere with. This point has been powerfully put by Mr. David Hume. * * * After laying down very emphatically the general principle of non-interference and free competition, Mr. Hume goes on to make the admission that there undoubtedly may be and are some very useful and necessary matters which do not give that degree of advantage to any man that they can be safely left to individuals. Such matters, he says, must be effected by money, or by distinctions, or by both. Now, sir, if there ever was a case to which that description faithfully and accurately applies, I maintain that it is to the calling of the schoolmaster in England. That his calling is a necessary and an useful one, is clear; and yet it is equally clear that he does not obtain, and can not obtain, adequate remuneration without an interference on the part of government. Here, then, we have the precise case, if we are to adopt the illustration of Hume, in which the government ought to interfere. Reasoning *a priori*, the principle of free competition is not sufficient of itself, and can not supply a good education. Let us look at the facts. What is the existing state in England? There has, for years, been nothing except the

principle of non-interference. If, therefore, the principle of free competition were in reality a principle of the same potency in education as we all admit it to be in matters of trade, we ought to see education as prosperous under this system of free competition as trade itself is. If we could by possibility have had the principle of free competition fairly tried in any country, it would be in our own. It has been tried for a long time with perfect liberty in the richest country under the heavens, and where the people are not unfriendly to it. If the principle of free competition could show itself sufficient, it ought to be here; our schools ought to be the models of common schools; the people who have been educated in them ought to show the most perfect intelligence; every school ought to have its excellent little library, and its mechanical apparatus; and, instead of there being such a thing as a grown person being unable to read or to write, such an individual ought to be one at whom the people would stare, and who should be noted in the newspapers; while the schoolmaster ought to be as well acquainted with his important duties as the cutler with knives, or the engineer with machinery; moreover, he ought to be amply remunerated, and the highest respect of the public ought to be extended to him. Now, is this the truth? Look at the charges of the judges, at the resolutions of the grand juries, and at the reports made to every public department that has any thing to do with education. Take the reports of the inspectors of prisons. In Hertford House of Correction, out of 700 prisoners, about half were unable to read, and only eight could read and write well. In Maidstone jail, out of 8,000 prisoners, 1,300 were unable to read, and only fifty were able to read and write well. In Coldbath-fields, out of 8,000, it is not said that one could read and write well. If we turn from the reports of the inspectors of prisons to the registers of marriages, we find that there were nearly 130,000 couples married in the year 1844, and of those more than 40,000 of the bridegrooms and more than 60,000 of the brides could not sign their names, but made their marks. Therefore one third of the men and one half of the women, who are supposed to be in the prime of life, and who are destined to be the parents of the next generation, can not sign their names. What does this imply? The most grievous want of education. * * * And it is said, that if we only wait with patience, the principle of free competition will do all that is necessary for education. We have been waiting with patience since the Heptarchy. How much longer are we to wait? Are we to wait till 2,847, or till 3,847? Will you wait till patience is exhausted? Can you say that the experiment which has been tried with so little effect has been tried under unfavorable circumstances? has it been tried on a small scale, or for a short period? You can say none of these things. * * * It was at the end of the 17th century that Fletcher of Saltoun, a brave and able man, who fought and suffered for liberty, was so overwhelmed with the spectacle of misery his country presented, that he actually published a pamphlet, in which he proposed the institution of personal slavery in Scotland as the only way to compel the common people to work. Within two months after the appearance of the pamphlet of Fletcher, the Parliament of Scotland passed in 1696, an act for the settlement of schools. Has the whole world given us such an instance of improvement as that which took place at the beginning of the 18th century? In a short time, in spite of the inclemency of the air and the sterility of the soil, Scotland became a country which had no reason to envy any part of the world, however richly gifted by nature; and remember that Scotchmen did this, and that wherever a Scotchman went—and there were few places he did not go to—he carried with him signs of the moral and intellectual cultivation he had received. If he had a shop, he had the best trade in the street; if he enlisted in the army, he soon became a non-commissioned officer. Not that the Scotchman changed; there was no change in the man, for a hundred years before, Scotchmen of the lower classes were spoken of in London as you speak of the Esquimaux; but such was the difference when this system of State education had been in force for only one generation; the language of contempt was at an end, and that of envy succeeded. Then the complaint was, that wherever the Scotchman came he got more than his share; that when he mixed with Englishmen and Irishmen, he rose as regularly to the top as oil rises on water. * * * Under this system of State education, whatever were its defects, Scotland rose and prospered to such a degree that I do not believe a single person, even of those who now most loudly proclaim their abhorrence of State education, would

venture to say that Scotland would have become the free, civilized country it is, if the education of her people had been left to free competition without any interference on the part of the State. Then how does this argument stand? I doubt whether it be possible to find, if there be any meaning in the science of induction as applied to politics, any instance of an experiment tried so fully and so fairly, tried with all the conditions which Lord Bacon has laid down in his *Novum Organum*, and of which the result was so evident. Observe, you take these two countries so closely resembling each other in many particulars—in one of these two countries, by far the richer of the two, and better able to get on with free competition, you have free competition; and what is the result? The Congregational Union tell you that it is a result, indeed, to make us ashamed, and every enlightened foreigner that comes amongst us, sad. In the other country, little favored by nature, you find a system of State education—not a perfect one, but still an efficient one—and the result is an evident and rapid improvement in the moral and intellectual character of the people, and a consequent improvement in security and in prosperity such as was hardly ever seen before in the world. If this had been the case in surgery or in chemistry, and such experiments and results had been laid before you, would it be possible for you not to see which was the wrong course and which the right? These arguments have most fully convinced me of a truth which I shall not shrink from proclaiming in the face of any clamor that may be raised against it—that it is the duty of the State to educate the common people.

Mr. Carlyle has uttered many indignant rebukes of the niggardly policy of the English government in respect to the education of the people.

Who would suppose that education were a thing which had to be advocated on the ground of local expediency, or indeed on any ground? As if it stood not on the basis of everlasting duty, as a prime necessity of man. It is a thing that should need no advocating; much as it does actually need. To impart the gift of thinking to those who can not think, and yet who could in that case think; this, one would imagine, was the first function a government had to set about discharging. Were it not a cruel thing to see, in any province of an empire, the inhabitants living all mutilated in their limbs, each strong man with his right arm lamed? How much crueler to find the strong soul, with his eyes still sealed, his eyes extinct, so that it sees not! Light has come into the world, but to this poor peasant, it has come in vain. For six thousand years, the sons of Adam, in sleepless effort, have been devising, doing, discovering, in mysterious, infinite indissoluble communion, warring, a little band of brothers, against the great black empire of necessity and night; they have accomplished such a conquest and conquests; and to this man it is all as if it had not been. The four and twenty letters of the alphabet are still Runic enigmas to him. He passes by on the other side; and that great spiritual kingdom, the toil-worn conquest of his own brothers, all that his brothers have conquered, is a thing non-existent for him; an invisible empire; he knows it not; suspects it not. And is it not his withal; the conquest of his own brothers, the lawfully acquired possession of all men? Baleful enchantment lies over him from generation to generation; he knows not that such an empire is his, that such an empire is at all? O, what are bills of rights, emancipations of black slaves into black apprentices, lawsuits in chancery for some short usufruct of a bit of land? The grand "seed-field of time" is this man's, and you give it him not. Time's seed-field, which includes the earth and all her seed-fields and pearl-oceans, nay her sowers too and pearl-divers, all that was wise and heroic and victorious here below; of which the earth's centuries are but furrows, for it stretches forth from the beginning onward even unto this day!

"My inheritance, how lovably, wide and fair;
Time is my fair seed-field, to time I'm heir!"

Heavier wrong is not done under the sun. It lasts from year to year, from century to century; the blinded sire slaves himself out, and leaves a blinded son; and men, made in the image of God, continue as two legged beasts of labor; and in the largest empire of the world, it is a debate whether a small fraction of the revenue of one day (30,000*l.* is but that) shall, after thirteen centuries, be laid out on it, or not laid out on it.

But quitting all that, of which the human soul can not well speak in terms of civility, let us observe now that Education is not only an eternal duty, but has at length become even a temporary and ephemeral one, which the necessities of the hour will oblige us to look after. These twenty-four million laboring men, if their affairs remain unregulated, chaotic, will burn ricks and mills; reduce us, themselves and the world into ashes and ruin. Simply their affairs can not remain unregulated, chaotic; but must be regulated, brought into some kind of order. What intellect were able to regulate them? The intellect of a Bacon, the energy of a Luther, if left to their own strength, might pause in dismay before such a task; a Bacon and Luther added together, to be perpetual prime minister over us, could not do it. No one great and greatest intellect can do it. What can? Only twenty-four million ordinary intellects, once awakened into action; these well presided over, may. Intellect, insight, is the discernment or order in disorder; it is the discovery of the will of Nature, of God's will; the beginning of the capability to walk according to that. With perfect intellect, were such possible without perfect morality, the world would be perfect; its efforts unerringly correct, its results continually successful, its condition faultless. Intellect is like light; the Chaos becomes a World under it: *fait luz*. These twenty-four million intellects are but common intellects; but they are intellects; in earnest about the matter, instructed each about his own province of it; laboring each perpetually, with what partial light can be attained, to bring such province into rationality. From the partial determinations and their conflict, springs the universal. Precisely what quantity of intellect was in the twenty-four millions will be exhibited by the result they arrive at; that quantity and no more. According as there was intellect or no intellect in the individuals, will the general conclusion they make out embody itself as a world-healing Truth and Wisdom, or as a baseless fateful Hallucination, a Chimæra breathing *not* fabulous fire!

Dissenters call for one scheme of Education, the Church objects; this party objects, and that; there is endless objection, by him and by her and by it: a subject encumbered with difficulties on every side! Pity that difficulties exist; that Religion, of all things, should occasion difficulties. We do not extenuate them; in their reality they are considerable; in their appearance and pretension, they are insuperable, heart-appalling to all Secretaries of the Home Department. For, in very truth, how can Religion be divorced from Education? An irreverent knowledge is no knowledge; may be a development of the logical or other handicraft faultily inward or outward; but is no culture of the soul of a man. A knowledge that ends in barren self-worship, comparative indifference or contempt for all God's Universe except one insignificant item thereof, what is it? Handicraft development, and even shallow as handicraft. Nevertheless is handicraft itself, and the habit of the merest logic, nothing? It is already something; it is the indispensable beginning of every thing! Wise men know it to be an indispensable something; not yet much; and would so gladly superadd to it the element whereby it may become all. Wise men would not quarrel in attempting this; they would lovingly co-operate in attempting it.

"And now how teach religion?" so asks the indignant Ultra-radical, cited above; an Ultra-radical seemingly not of the Benthamite species, with whom, though his dialect is far different, there are sound churchmen, we hope, who have some fellow-feeling: "How teach religion? By plying with liturgies, catechisms, credos; droning thirty-nine or other articles incessantly into the infant ear? Friends! In that case, why not apply to Birmingham, and have Machines made, and set up at all street-corners, in highways and byways, to repeat and vociferate the same, not ceasing night or day? The genius of Birmingham is adequate to that. Albertus Magnus had a leather man that could articulate; not to speak of Martinus Scriblerus's Nuremberg man that could reason as well as we know who! Depend upon it, Birmingham can make machines to repeat liturgies and articles; to do whatsoever feat is mechanical. And what were all school-masters, nay all priests and churches compared with this Birmingham Iron Church! Votes of two millions in aid of the church were then something. You order, at so many pounds a-head, so many thousand iron parsons as your grant covers; and fix them by satisfactory masonry in all quarters wheresoever wanted, to preach there independent of the world. In loud thoroughfares, still more in unawakened districts, troubled with argumentative infidelity, you make the wind-pipes wider, strengthen the main steam-cylinder; your parson preaches to the

due pitch, while you give him coal; and fears no man or thing. Here *were* a "Church-extension;" to which I, with my last penny, did I believe in it, could subscribe. — Ye blind leaders of the blind! Are we Calmucks, that pray by turning of a rotatory calebash with written prayers in it? Is Mammon and machinery the means of converting human souls, as of spinning cotton? Is God, as Jean Paul predicted it would be, become verily a Force; the *Æther* too a Gas! Alas, that Atheism should have got the length of putting on priests' vestments, and penetrating into the sanctuary itself! Can dronings of articles, repetitions of liturgies, and all the cash and contrivance of Birmingham and the Bank of England united bring ethereal fire into a human soul, quicken it out of earthly darkness into heavenly wisdom? Soul is kindled only by soul. To "teach" religion, the first thing needful, and also the last and the only thing, is finding of a man who *has* religion. All else follows from this, church-building, church extension, whatever else is needful follows; without this nothing will follow."

From which we, for our part, conclude that the method of teaching religion to the English people is still far behindhand; that the wise and pious may well ask themselves in silence wistfully, "How *is* that last priceless element, by which education becomes perfect, to be superadded?" and the unwise who think themselves pious, answering aloud, "By this method, By that method," long argue of it to small purpose.

But now, in the meantime, could not by some fit official person, some fit announcement be made, in words well-weighed, in plan well-schemed, adequately representing the facts of the thing, that after thirteen centuries of waiting, he the official person, and England with him, was minded to have the mystery of the Alphabetic Letters imparted to all human souls in his realm? Teaching of religion was a thing he could not undertake to settle this day; it would be work for a day after this; the work of this day was teaching of the alphabet to all people. The miraculous art of reading and writing, such seemed to him the useful preliminary of all teaching, the first corner-stone of what foundation soever could be laid for what edifice soever, in the teaching kind. Let pious Churchmen make haste, let pious Dissenters make haste, let all pious preachers and missionaries make haste, bestir themselves according to their zeal and skill; he the official person stood up for the Alphabet; and was even impatient for it, having waited thirteen centuries now. He insisted, and would take no denial, postponement, promise, excuse or subterfuge. That all English persons should be taught to read. He appealed to all rational Englishmen, of all creeds, classes and colors. Whether this was not a fair demand; nay whether it was not an indispensable one in these days, Swing and Chartism having risen? For a choice of inoffensive Hornbooks, and Schoolmasters able to teach reading, he trusted the mere secular sagacity of a National Collective Wisdom, in proper committee, might be found sufficient. He proposed to appoint such Schoolmasters, to venture on the choice of such Hornbooks; to send a Schoolmaster and Hornbook into every township, parish and hamlet of England; so that in ten years hence, an Englishman who could not read might be acknowledged as the monster which he really is.

* * We can conceive even, as in Prussia, that a penalty, civil disabilities, that penalties and disabilities till they were found effectual, might be by law inflicted on every parent who did not teach his children to read, on every man who had not been taught to read. We can conceive, in fine, such is the vigour of our imagination, there might be found in England, at a dead-lift, strength enough to perform this miracle, and produce it henceforth as a miracle done: the teaching of England to read! Harder things, we do know, have been performed by nations before now, not abler-looking than England. Ah me! if, by some beneficent chance, there should be an official man found in England who could and would, with deliberate courage, after ripe counsel, with candid insight, with patience, practical sense, knowing realities to be real, knowing clamors to be clamorous and to seem real, propose this thing, and the innumerable things springing from it,—wo to any Churchism or any Dissentism that cast itself athwart the path of that man! Avaunt ye gainsayers! is darkness, and ignorance of the Alphabet necessary for you? Reconcile yourselves to the Alphabet, or depart elsewhere!—Would not all that has genuineness in England gradually rally round such a man; all that has strength in England?

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HESSE DARMSTADT.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

THE territory now occupied by Hesse Cassel, Hesse Darmstadt, and Hesse Homburg, originally belonged to the Catté, or Chatts, and with various fortunes, was ruled by earls and dukes, and merged by marriage and inheritance into other dominions, until 1292, when Henry I., surnamed the *child*, was made a *landgrave* of the Empire by Emperor Adolphus. On the death of Henry I. in 1306, his dominion was partitioned, and in 1504 the parts were again united by William II., and bequeathed in 1509 to his son Philip, surnamed the *Generous*, who introduced the Reformation of Luther, and established, in 1527, the University of Marberg without the authority of the Pope, and endowed it with the revenues of the secularized convents and monasteries. He also favored the introduction of elementary schools in connection with the reformed church. Philip died in 1567, dividing the landgraviate of these among his four sons:—the eldest, William IV., obtained the largest share, with Cassel for his residence; Ludwig, a fourth part, with Marberg, which in the next generation was united with the share of William IV.; Philip, an eighth part, with Rheinfels; and George, an eighth part, with Darmstadt. On the death of Ludwig and Philip, the dominions of these consisted of the Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt and the Electoral Hesse or Hesse Cassel. The landgraviate of Hesse Homburg, with a superficial area of 105,980 square miles, and a population in 1860 of 27,746, originally belonged to Hesse Darmstadt, was set off with some restrictions in 1622, and in 1817 became a member of the German Confederation. Hesse Cassel had in 1860 a territory of 3,647 square miles (composed of five detached provinces or districts) and a population of 726,686. Hesse Darmstadt had an area of 3,206 square miles and a population of 845,571.

The Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt, exclusive of the small outlying districts of Vöhl, Wimpfen, and Kürnbach, consists of two detached but nearly equal portions, forming the three provinces of Upper Hesse, Starkenburg, and Rhenish Hesse, which are again subdivided into twenty-six circles or districts, and these into parishes. The province of Upper Hesse is mountainous, and its climate much more severe than that of the two lower provinces, which include extensive plains belonging to the valleys of the Rhine and Main, growing a great variety of fruits, and noted for the excellence of their wines. One half of the territory is

arable land and highly cultivated, Upper Hesse yielding a large surplus of grain for export, and the value of the wine crop of the lower provinces amounting, in good seasons, to 4,000,000 thalers (\$3,900,000.) Much attention is also given to the raising of horses and cattle. Manufactures are but limited.

The budget for the years 1860-62, showed the amount of annual receipts to be 9,096,664 florins (\$3,775,000)—expenditures, 9,066,796 fl.—public debt, exclusive of railway loans, 6,470,000 fl. (\$2,685,000.) The army comprises, in all, 10,618 men, whose term of service is six years, two years of which is in the reserve force.

PROVINCES.	Area.	Pop. in 1838.	Chief Towns.	Pop. in 1861.
Upper Hesse,.....	1,531 sq. m.	300,261	Giessen.	10,000
Starkenburg,.....	1,151 "	318,422	Darmstadt.	28,528
Rhenish Hesse,.....	525 "	226,888	Mayence.	41,273

The total area is 3,761 sq. miles. The population in 1861 was 856,907, (area of Connecticut, 4,674 sq. m.—pop. in 1860, 460,147,)—which may be divided, in regard to religion, as follows:—Lutherans, 405,000; Reformed Calvinists, 30,000; Evangelicals, 167,000; Catholics, 221,000; Jews, 80,000; Mennonites, &c., 4,000.

Hesse Darmstadt holds the ninth rank among the states of the German Confederacy, and is a limited monarchy, modified in 1820 by the introduction of two chambers—an upper, composed chiefly of nobility and citizens, appointed for life by the Grand Duke, and a lower, consisting principally of deputies from the chief towns. These chambers must be convoked at least once in three years, but the real power of the government rests with the council of state and the five ministries into which the several branches of the administration are divided. Since 1820 there have been frequent disagreements and much ill-feeling between the chambers and the government, and frequent dissensions in church and state; nevertheless the duchy has made considerable advances in material prosperity, railroads have been opened and new roads formed, monopolies and other commercial restrictions removed, greater freedom permitted in the curriculum of the University, and a more liberal spirit infused into the system of national education. Although these and other improvements were grudgingly yielded, they have been permanent, but the grand ducal policy has been neither liberal nor in accordance with the feelings and views of the majority of the people.

The account of the system and means of public instruction below that of the University, is drawn mainly from an article by Rev. K. Strack, in Schmid's "*Encyklopädie des gesammten Erziehungs und Unterrichtswesens*," (Gotha, 1861.) under the following heads:

- I. COMMON or Elementary Schools.
- II. SECONDARY or Classical Schools.
- III. REAL and Trade Schools for Boys.
- IV. HIGH Schools for Girls.
- V. ORPHAN, Rescue, and Special Schools.

I. PRIMARY OR COMMON SCHOOLS.

1. *History.*

The history of the school system of Hesse Darmstadt commences with the introduction of the Reformation into the duchy. The first synod, of 1526, strictly required the establishment of schools for boys in every city, borough, and village, for instruction in all the elementary branches; or wherever this was impossible, the pastors were required to see that they were taught at least to read and write. Schools for girls were also declared necessary in the cities and desirable in the villages, where instruction should be administered by pious women in reading and the elements of religion. Every morning these schools were opened with the singing of psalms and the reading of a chapter from the Bible. Between 1576 and 1596, thirteen new schools were endowed by Count George I., and in the city schools of Darmstadt the poor received instruction, food and clothing gratuitously. In 1634 an ordinance was issued by George II., requiring more thorough instruction in the catechism, and that all children, both of rich and poor, should attend school until they could at least read and write. In case private tutors were employed, they were required to give satisfactory evidence of orthodoxy and fitness for teaching. The school expenses of the poor were defrayed from the poor's box of the church or by the contributions of the richer inhabitants. Count Ernest Ludwig, in 1733, made several excellent regulations in relation to religious instruction, the abolition of numerous holidays, fixing the number of school hours at three each forenoon and afternoon, and withholding confirmation from children who had been too negligent in attendance. But these stringent rules do not seem to have been fully carried into execution, the school ordinances of 1724 still remaining for the most part in force until a recent period. The schools were in the position of ecclesiastical institutions under ecclesiastical authority, until the territorial changes in the early part of the present century made some modification necessary. In the provinces of Upper Hesse and Starkenburg the affairs of both church and school were entrusted to a "church and school council," while in Rhenish Hesse the schools were under the supervision of the provincial authorities. School ordinances for the several provinces were issued in 1826-7, but were wholly superseded by the edict of June 6, 1832, together with the "Instructions for the school authorities" of June 10, of the same year.

2. *General Outlines of School Legislation and Administration.*

School attendance commences with the seventh year, or generally at the preceding Whitsunday, if the birthday occurs before the end of December, and is obligatory until confirmation, which takes place at the

age of fourteen. Attendance may be deferred a year for good reasons by the local school directors, and for a longer period by the school commissioners of the district, who also can, if necessary, excuse from attendance before confirmation. It is but seldom, and only under peculiar circumstances and by consent of the Higher Consistory, that a child is admitted to confirmation at a younger age than fourteen. Absence from school for a day or two may be granted by the teacher—for several weeks, by the school directors. If confirmation is deferred beyond the fourteenth year, the pupil is obliged to remain still at school; and should his dismissal take place before that time, his tuition fees must still be paid for the full period. Unexcused absences are punished by a fine of three kreutzers (two cents) per day, which may be doubled or trebled. The absentees are reported to the school officials at the end of each quarter, or oftener. Such parents as are especially delinquent are punished with imprisonment on decree of the police court, and are debarred from assistance of every kind from the public funds. The fines thus collected are applied to the education of poor children. Attendance at schools of a higher grade than the common schools is not obligatory, nor can fines be imposed for neglect of Sunday instruction in the catechism; but the system of fines is not laid aside until the children are subjected to the influence of a higher culture than is found in the common schools. At the higher schools, attendance until the age of eighteen or twenty is left to be secured by moral influences only.

The expenses of the school are defrayed by the parish, unless there are special funds established, or claims upon other sources, as upon certain cloister funds or church revenues. Assistance is rendered by the state to parishes that are especially needy. The income of the provincial school funds, arising from the unexpended revenues of vacant schools and other sources, is applied to the occasional relief of poor and worthy teachers. This income in Starkenburg amounts to 5,700 fl. (\$2,365,) and in Upper Hesse, to 3,000 fl. (\$1,245)—while in Rhenish Hesse its amount is small. Starkenburg also possesses a fund of 96,800 fl., devised in 1807 by State Councillor May, the income of which is equally divided among such of the teachers in that part of the province formerly belonging to ancient Hesse, as receive salaries of less than 300 fl., amounting during the last year to 26 fl. to each teacher; and the late Councillor Wenck devised 400 fl. to Starkenburg and 300 fl. to Upper Hesse, the income to be expended every three years in premiums to teachers and scholars. In Rhenish Hesse there is a special fund for the erection of churches and schools, derived since 1813 from the tenth of the proceeds of sales of estates belonging to the parishes, the revenues of which, from 1820 to 1836, amounted to 306,126 fl. (\$127,000.) In most parishes there are charges made for tuition and fuel, which are collected by the parish treasurer; these charges vary in the villages from one to two florins, and in the cities may amount to four florins. But there is no want of parishes in which there is no school money whatever, except

what is given as a voluntary New Year's gift. Poor children are provided for at the expense of the parish, if there is no money applicable from other sources. The special schools for the poor that formerly existed in most of the larger cities, are generally abolished.

The law requires that in every parish where there are thirty-six children there shall be a school—with one hundred children, two schools, or arrangements for an independent assistant—with two hundred and fifty children, three schools, &c. There are no other public schools than these parish schools, except that schools for laboring men are sustained in many of the small cities by parish contributions or other means. In Upper Hesse and Starkenburg the schools are almost wholly sectarian, while the contrary has been true in regard to many of the parishes of Rhenish Hesse. Very recently many of these latter schools have also become sectarian, so that the number of evangelical schools is now 1,230; of Catholic schools, 433; and of unsectarian, only 67. When several teachers are engaged in the same unsectarian school, they are chosen from the several sects in due proportion. The Mennonites and Anabaptists, as well as the Jews, are obliged to send their children to the public schools, but not, of course, to receive religious instruction. Should they establish schools of their own, it must be under the regulations of the law. The teacher is appointed by the state authorities, and, in the Jewish schools, can not at the same time be a butcher.

The immediate oversight of the schools, with very few exceptions, rests with the local "school directory," consisting of the pastor, burgomaster, and two members elected for six years by the district school commissioners on the nomination of the pastor and burgomaster. In the unsectarian schools the supervision alternates between the pastors, &c., of the different sects. This directory has the management of the school property, the imposition and appropriation of the fines for non-attendance, the charge of the annual examinations, &c.

The superintendence of all the public and private elementary schools within a district is entrusted to the "District School Commissioners," consisting of the District Councilor (Kreisrath) as chairman, and of two pastors of different sects, if there are such in the district, and elected by the ministry for five years. They are required to visit all the schools every two years, accompanied by some of the teachers of the district, and are empowered to impose fines of 5 florins upon local directors, and of 20 florins upon teachers.

The general superintendence of all the common and real schools of the duchy was, until 1849, in the hands of the "Higher School Council," (Oberschulrath,) which was then united with the "Higher Council of Education," (Oberstudienrathe,) having charge of the higher institutions of learning, and received the title of the "Higher Directory of Education," (Oberstudiendirection.) This directory have power to inflict fines of 30 fl. and two months' suspension from office and salary, upon disobedient and negligent teachers, or to request their dismissal. They appoint

temporary teachers, but only with the approval of the ministry, if the office is to continue longer than a year, and they are required to arrange for the visitation of all the schools by the members of the directory within the period of six years. The ministry appoints teachers, and confirms the severer punishments that may have been imposed for neglect of duty, and its consent is also necessary to the establishment of new schools, and to the introduction or abolishment of unsectarian schools. The bishop and the consistory have no decisive voice in school affairs, and it is expressly provided that the local school directors, both pastors and elected members, shall be independent of the church authorities in matters relating to the schools. Care, however, has hitherto been taken that among the members of the Higher Directory there should be a representative from the consistory and a Catholic priest. Religious instruction, on the other hand, is left so far to the united supervision of the bishop and the consistory that they have the decision respecting the introduction of the catechism, and the use of other books of religious instruction.

3. *Statistics.*

The number of school children is 150,568, or 17.5 per cent. of the whole population, distributed among 1,756 schools, and averaging 85.7 in each. The number of children of schoolage varies but slightly from the number in actual attendance. The number of school districts is twenty-six, corresponding to the number of circles. For the children of soldiers in garrison there is at Darmstadt a garrison school, with four teachers, under the direction of the ministry of war.

In scarcely any other state has there been so much done during the last twenty-five years for the improvement of schools as in Hesse. When the edict of 1832 was issued, there were yet many "winter schools" in existence, especially in the Odenwald. It was usual among the small parishes to engage a school candidate, or one preparing for the office, for six or seven months, who generally "boarded around," and received scarcely servants' wages. There were also teachers who worked at a trade and at the same time kept a school, and many of the salaries did not amount to 60-80 fl. In 1803 only one-third of the teachers received over 100 fl. (§41.50,) one-third between 50 and 100 fl., and one-third less than 50 fl. The states, in 1832, appropriated 9,587 fl. for the purpose of raising the salaries to a minimum of 155 fl., and in 1839 they had assumed the following relative proportions:—

225 teachers rec'd 155 fl.	191 rec'd 250-300 fl.	124 rec'd 400-500 fl.
224 " " 155-200 fl.	155 " 300-350 fl.	45 " 500-600 fl.
261 " " 200-250 fl.	121 " 350-400 fl.	36 " 600-800 fl.

The government and the chambers showed a continually increasing desire to render the condition of teachers more tolerable, improvements were frequently advised by the deputies, and in 1849 it was proposed to abolish all tuition fees and to classify the teachers, with salaries of 350-800 fl. Want of means on the part of the government prevented its

accomplishment. The salaries at that time amounted to 474,675 fl., (\$197,000,) of which the state contributed 21,463 fl. (\$8,900.) The average of all the salaries was 303 fl. (\$125.75)—one-eighth of the teachers received 400 fl., nearly one-half more than 300 fl., and three fourths more than 300 fl. Upon the meeting of the chambers in 1852, there arose a protracted discussion upon the question of raising the minimum salary to 225 or 300 fl.—the lower chamber being in favor at least of the lowest sum, while the upper chamber opposed it. The government, however, granted an allowance for the support, as it might be needed, of such deserving teachers as were receiving less than 300 fl. The state budget now includes, as appropriated to common schools, 44,463 fl., (\$18,500,) which is distributed as follows:—For salaries, 21,463 fl.; for pensions, 7,000 fl.; and for the increase of teachers' salaries under 300 fl., 1,600 fl. To this we may add the income arising from the Teachers' Widows' Fund, amounting to 16,782 fl., and the appropriation of 12,185 fl. to the two teachers' seminaries.

It may be generally affirmed that, of all those who have attained the school age since 1832, very few are now unable to read and write.

4. *Internal Administration.*

Wherever there is but one school, the elementary class, including all children under eight or nine years of age, generally receives two hours of separate instruction each day. When there are two schools, the division is made with reference to age and capacity, very seldom by sexes. In case of three schools, they comprise a male high school, female high school, and mixed elementary school, each of which may be again divided into three classes with reference to age, &c.; the number of divisions should not be ordinarily more than three—and this classification should be made wherever there are more than sixty scholars. The branches of study that are absolutely required are religion, including biblical and religious history, reading, writing, ciphering, the German language, and singing; the conditionally obligatory branches are geography and elementary geometry; while drawing and agriculture are left still farther in the background.

Twenty-six hours of instruction per week are required, though in practice thirty hours are generally given; not more than six hours a day are permitted. In the villages and small agricultural towns there is a "summer school" kept from the 15th of May to the 1st of November, three or four hours each day.

As the laws have always regarded instruction in religion as the subject of highest importance in the common schools, every teacher is required to impart it, and in accordance with the principles of the sect to which he belongs. In the unsectarian schools the children receive religious instruction only from the teacher of their own faith, or from their pastor or priest. Every pastor should visit and instruct the school of his parish twice a week, or if he can not teach personally, he must watch over the

teacher, and prescribe what is to be committed to memory. This consists of portions selected from the old Baden catechism, which, however, is of late going into disuse. In the Lutheran parishes the whole of Luther's smaller catechism is learned. A certain number of church hymns are also required of those intending to become teachers, at their admission into the teachers' seminary. The whole of the Bible, and not merely the New Testament, is used in the schools. The children are required to attend church service, but it is not strictly determined how far the teacher may use compulsory measures to enforce it.

A public examination should be held annually between Easter and Whitsunday, at which the teacher is required to make report of the past year. The vacations are determined by local circumstances, but can not exceed eight weeks during the year, nor continue longer than four weeks at a time. Flogging is allowed, if other methods of punishment are ineffectual, but record must be made of the occurrence, together with the reasons for its infliction. Should severer chastisement be needed, it must be done with the knowledge of the parents, and in the presence of a member of the school directory, by the public official. Scholars that have been legally sentenced for crime are punished by confinement—in the school-house, for periods of less than twelve hours—for longer periods, in the public jail, apart from other criminals, and at such time as the school is not in session. Children under twelve years of age can be punished only in school, even for the graver offenses. There has been no special decision how far the teacher can and ought to punish for faults committed out of school. He is only required to see that the scholars do not visit places of public amusement, at least without the company of their parents, that they read no improper books, are kind to animals, spare the birds, &c. He should also exert his influence against the use of intoxicating drinks. Sunday and evening schools, &c., for those whose education has been neglected, have been able to maintain only a brief existence, spite of repeated attempts and persistent personal effort. The same is true of female industrial schools.

5. Teachers and their Training.

A distinction is made only between teachers that have been permanently located by the ministry, and those that have been temporarily engaged—not between principal and assistant teachers. It is only in special cases that the temporary teachers are allowed to have assistants. The subject of teachers' seminaries had been discussed as early as 1784, but funds were then wanting for their establishment, and it was not until 1804 that the Catholic seminary at Bensheim was commenced, in connection with the gymnasium there; the second was opened in 1808, at Friedberg, and is evangelical. The number of students at Friedberg is 100, at Bensheim 30 or 40, principally from the class of farmers and teachers. At the first there are three regular teachers and two assistants, besides the director; at the latter, two teachers and one or two assist-

ants. The directors of the deaf and dumb institution also instruct the students in their methods of teaching, and at Friedberg a professor in the theological seminary gives them instruction in religion. The appropriations from the state amount to 7,500 fl. and 4,500 fl. respectively. The legal age for admission is sixteen years, and the qualifications required are such as can be acquired at the common schools of the higher grade, with some skill in playing upon the piano. The course of study requires two years attendance, and the number of teachers in the duchy that have not attended the seminaries is scarcely four per cent. of the whole. There is a model school attached to each seminary. The students at each reside in a single building under the charge of the teachers, boarding there or at a boarding-house in the neighborhood. Rooms, wood, lights, &c., are gratuitous, and poor pupils receive an allowance of 30-40 fl., for which an appropriation of 800 fl. is made by the state. A public examination is held at the close of the course, and a second one before the higher school authorities, at which the candidate should exhibit an accurate knowledge of biblical history and of the doctrines of religion, with a capacity to state and explain them in a manner to awaken the religious feelings of their pupils—in the German language, a correct and rhetorical style of reading, a composition free of errors, upon some subject connected with the branches upon which he is examined, and skill in discussing the principles of syntax and orthography—in history, a general knowledge of the nations mentioned in the Bible, the outlines of German history, and the origin of the modern states—in geography, a knowledge of the figure and structure of the earth in general, and its characteristics as a planet, of the more important seas, mountains, and countries, and especially and more intimately, of Germany and Hesse—in natural history and philosophy, an acquaintance with the most important principles—in mathematics, a familiarity with the rule of three, the chain rule, fellowship, and easy algebraic equations—in geometry, a knowledge of the fundamental principles, the construction of angles and figures, and their measurement—and in music, of its elementary principles, the composition of harmonies, the structure of the organ, singing church tunes by note, playing, &c. In case of failure on the part of younger candidates, a second examination may be granted. Teachers' meetings and reading circles are under the control of the district commissioners, and many parishes make small contributions towards their support.

The permanent settlement of the teacher is determined by the minister of the interior, generally at the age of 24-30, and the parishes have no right of petition against the person appointed. In some Catholic parishes, the priest has the right of presentation, in conjunction with the government—so likewise the princes and many noblemen. The church authorities have no right, even where the offices of sexton and teacher are united, to interfere with the appointment; only in eleven schools where the teachers have also regular ministerial duties to perform, does the consistory appoint the temporary teachers and cooperate in the selec-

tion of permanent ones. Other schools that need to be supplied with theological graduates, are supplied by the grand duke on nomination of the higher directory acting in conjunction with the consistory. Teachers are dismissed by the ministry, when admonitions and gentler measures are ineffectual; but expulsion may follow a single gross transgression. An investigation is always supposed, though there are no prescribed forms and conditions. Assistants can be engaged only with the approval of the higher directory, and they must at least be such as the dignity and requirements of the positions demand. Leave of absence for a week may be granted to teachers by the local directory, and for two months, or less, by the district commissioners. Private teachers and the principals of educational establishments, with their assistants, are obliged to obtain the approval, at any time revocable, of the school authorities.

For the expense of salary the state furnishes its appropriation and the parish its general tax. Deserving teachers also receive gifts from the provincial and other funds, and in rare cases the titles of chorister, or preceptor. There are, however, no regulations fixing the amount of salaries, pensions, &c., except that no teacher can receive more than 150 fl. from the state fund; but this is designated expressly as "assistance." Some city parishes have given pensions of 500 fl. The yearly pension from the widows' fund is 70 fl. Towards this fund the teachers who receive over 200 fl. contribute 6 fl. annually, others give 3 fl., and each parish 2 fl.

Female teachers are employed only in some girls' schools in Rhenish Hesse, especially in and near Mayence. There are also five canonesses employed in the city schools of the same place.

6. *Remarks.*

Many of these regulations, though excellent, still remain inoperative. Indeed, the execution of some of them, such as the one requiring the visitation of all the schools every six years by the higher directory, however desirable, is wholly impossible. There are, besides, many deficiencies yet to be supplied. Through the want of a fixed and general code of school regulations, the teachers and their movements are now subjected to the operation of the most diverse rules. Instruction in the seminaries has, beyond question, recently become more practical, but it should in many respects be yet more so. The temporary teachers should everywhere receive a fixed salary, and it is especially desirable that there should be a settled rule respecting pensions, whereby they shall not be left to the decisions of arbitrary will or the promptings of sympathy merely—and their payment should also be, at least generally, through the state treasury. Immediately before the revolution of 1848, the teachers expressed their desires in a memorial, briefly as follows: Union of the two seminaries, prior preparation at a real school, the complete separation of school and church, membership in the school directory, the district school commissioners to be all teachers, the exclusion of theologians from all schools, salaries of 350–800 fl. exclusive of house rent, &c. The realization of such hopes is probably far distant.

II. THE CLASSICAL SCHOOL SYSTEM.

1. *History.*

There is six gymnasia within the duchy, viz:—

1. At Darmstadt, founded in 1629, with a capital of 14,360 fl. Seven classes. Evangelical.

2. At Giessen, founded in 1605; its capital transferred to the University fund. Six classes. Evangelical.

3. At Worms, formed by the union of a former evangelical gymnasium and the Catholic seminary; capital 50,000 fl. It has a real school attached. Evangelical and Catholic.

4. At Mayence, sustained by the former University fund. Eight classes. Catholic.

5. At Bensheim, capital 130,000 fl. Four classes. Catholic.

6. At Büdingen, founded in 1601 for the better training of pastors and teachers, and established as a public gymnasium in 1822. Evangelical.

These institutions were, until 1824, under the control of district authorities; those at Darmstadt, Büdingen, and Bensheim, under church consistories; those at Worms and Mayence under the provincial authorities, and the one at Giessen under the University. In that year their management was placed in the hands of three provincial boards of commissioners of education, which, in 1832, were united with the Higher Council of Education, (Oberstudienrath.) All are now immediately under the control of the Higher Directory of Education. In important cases, the directory confer with the assembled teachers, though in certain circumstances they can decide upon their own responsibility against the opinion of the majority; in any case, they have the right to a temporary veto, pending the decision of the higher authorities. Consistories and bishops have only the charge of religious instruction, and see that no irreligious influence becomes prevalent. The principal support of these schools rests upon the state, assisted by the income of existing funds.

2. *Statistics.*

There is one gymnasium to 143,000 inhabitants, and one student to 160 common school scholars. The whole number of students is 936; of annual graduates, about 110. The attendance of students preparing for the university has been, upon the whole, uniform, but it seems of late to be slightly on the decrease, and ever since the establishment of real schools many of the graduates, especially those from Mayence and Darmstadt, enter into business or the military service. There are no private institutions of this class, only such as are preparatory to it. The number of regular teachers is, in Darmstadt, 10; in Mayence, 13;

in Giessen, 8; in Worms, 9; in Bensheim, 4; in Büdingen, 4; total, 48; besides 30-36 irregular teachers and assistants.

The entire expenses of the gymnasia amount, in Darmstadt, to 20,444 fl.; in Giessen, to 13,313 fl.; in Büdingen, to 7,010 fl.; in Worms, to 12,082 fl.; total, 52,849 fl., of which the state contributes 28,040 fl. The receipts for tuition amount to 12,560 fl. The gymnasium at Mayence receives nothing from the state—that at Bensheim, 2,000 fl. The tuition fees of each pupil are 12-25 fl.—generally the latter sum. In former years, the sons of teachers were exempt; at Mayence and Worms, the fees are remitted wholly or in part to the poorer students—seldom or never in the other gymnasia. The distribution of premiums is generally determined by the students themselves. There are certain endowments for this purpose. In other cases the premiums are paid from the school fund. The interest of the Fuhr legacy of 1,000 fl., in Darmstadt, is given in prizes to members of the first and second classes.

3. Internal Arrangement.

This differs in the several gymnasia. The one at Mayence alone has the full number of eight classes. At Darmstadt, the place of the lower class is supplied by the private preparatory schools. At Giessen, the two higher classes are formed of the first and second, and of the third and fourth combined. At the others, the classes of each two years are united into one, while at Worms there are real classes attached to the gymnasium, though they have but few hours in common.

Students are admitted at the age of ten years, and are required to be able to read German fluently in both the German and Roman characters, to write correctly from dictation in both German and Roman script, and to be acquainted with the four primary rules of arithmetic as applied to abstract numbers; a knowledge of the regular declension and conjugation in Latin, and ability to translate easy sentences is also desired. The course of study continues eight years—a year to each class, and two years to the combined classes. The average time spent in school is fixed at thirty hours per week, and is divided in the different classes, as follows:—

SUBJECTS.	CLASSES.—Hours per Week.							
	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
German,	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	2
Latin,	10	8	8	8	8	8	7	7
Greek,			2	4	4	5	6	6
Hebrew,							2	2
French,	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics, ...	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	4
Nat. Philosophy, .	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Geography,	2	2	2	2	2	2		
History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Penmanship,	2	1	1	1				
Gymnastics,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Religious instruction is given by teachers who have received a theological education, or, in the sectarian gymnasia, by the settled ministers. A special plan of instruction has been recently introduced, dividing the course into two grades. The first, for the five lower classes, includes biblical history, with the committing to memory of texts and hymns, the ten commandments, creed, and Lord's prayer, and the explanations of the catechism, followed by the study of the appointed text-book upon the Christian doctrines of faith and morals, a concise history of the Christian religion, and explanations of the doctrinal differences of the various sects. The advanced course commences with the study of the Holy Scriptures simply, or includes a more extended history of religion and the church, showing the development of church doctrines and spread of the church, together with a view of the skeptical doctrines of the present age. The exercises of each day commence and close, at least at the end of the week, with prayer. At Darmstadt, where most of the students have been confirmed, divine worship is held in a hall of the gymnasium every two weeks, and teachers and students together partake of the communion. Elsewhere, care is at least taken that the students attend church, a duty which devolves upon the teachers in turn. For Catholic instruction a priest is especially detailed by the bishop.

In Latin, the course extends to include, in order, Eutropius, Nepos, Victor, Phaedrus, Justin, Cæsar, Pliny, Curtius, Cicero, Horace, Livy, Virgil, Perseus, Juvenal, and Plautus. Of grammar, Latin compositions are required in the upper classes, and the students are taught to express themselves grammatically and elegantly. The making of verses is only occasionally required.

The Greek course includes Xenophon, Homer, Herodotus, Lucian, Plutarch, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Plato, Aristophanes, Sophocles, Æschylus, and perhaps Pindar and Theocritus, with translations into Latin. The study of Greek is obligatory upon such as are intended for the profession of theology, law, and medicine; others may be excused at the request of the parents, which occurs with from one-third to one-half of the students at Mayence, but with only from one-eighth to one-tenth at the other gymnasia; in the lower classes, somewhat more.

Hebrew is taught, usually by one of the regular teachers, to the two higher classes, though younger students are permitted to join them. The study includes the most general principles of syntax, with the translation of extracts from Genesis, Joshua, and the Psalms.

Instruction in French is given by a regular teacher, and is so far extended as to enable the students to read without assistance the best French classics, and to express themselves properly both orally and with the pen. There are frequent exercises in translation, conversation, and composition, especially upon business subjects, and public exercises are occasionally held.

Private instruction in English and Italian is also given by a special teacher, two hours in the week. The students pursuing these branches are classed in two divisions.

The course of German study includes practice in correct and expressive reading, with the explanation and narration of what has been read in the student's own words, both the elements and higher branches of etymology, syntax and the structure of sentences, punctuation, transformation of poetry to prose, composition, metrical versions from old authors, history of modern and ancient German literature, rhetoric, grammar of the old German language, exercises in metrical style, explanations of the classical poems of Klopstock, Schiller, Goethe, Herder, &c. All the classes have exercises in declamation, and the higher ones in public oratory.

The historical course embraces the universal history of the ancient and middle ages, and of modern times, together with the history and statistics of Hesse.

Geography is continued until the sixth year, and is thoroughly taught. Map drawing is practiced, but not generally.

The course of natural science includes a systematic study of zoology and botany, human physiology, with the principles of dietetics, natural and mechanical philosophy, chemistry and geology. Two hours in the week are generally given to this branch.

In mathematics, the branches pursued are arithmetic, algebra, elementary and descriptive geometry, plain and spherical trigonometry, and conic sections.

The study of the elements of philosophy should receive two hours, during the last year, but it is usually omitted through the stress of other studies. Singing is obligatory in the four lower classes, and in the upper classes upon those at least who are to pursue the study of theology, or of sacred and secular music. It is usually accompanied with instrumental music, and performed in concert. In the practice of gymnastics, several classes generally unite. At Darmstadt, Mayence, and Büdingen, there are gymnastic halls; at Mayence instruction is also given in swimming.

Out of school hours teachers that have much to do in the way of correcting exercises, are called upon for little else. The class teacher (each class has its "class teacher," except where the system of department teachers is followed,) has to see that the students have some hours each at their own disposal and for exercise, and should visit their rooms from time to time to make sure of their diligence and good behavior. Teachers may receive private pupils, from whom the usual fee is 30 kreutzers (20 cents) an hour—in Darmstadt, 1 florin (41½ cents.) There are students' libraries at all the gymnasia, and they are also permitted to use the teachers' libraries, to each of which an appropriation of 100–150 fl. is made by the state. The lower classes are graded at short intervals, the rank being determined principally from the written exercises; the grading of the upper classes occurs less frequently, and is made somewhat in accordance with the total of mistakes during the half-year.

School discipline extends over the whole conduct of the student, even out of school and school hours. The class teacher is required to see that the printed rules are obeyed, and lists are provided in which each

teacher notes the conduct and diligence of the students under his charge. The severer punishments are, on the whole, seldom inflicted, though in the lower classes corporal chastisement is not strictly forbidden. At the close of every quarter or half year, censures are reported to those deserving them, which must be countersigned by the parents or their representatives. These reports are, in certain cases, sent directly to the parents. The frequenting of beer-houses and smoking of tobacco are forbidden, but yet are common. The latter habit is everywhere followed if the parents permit it. The former evil has been much promoted by the influence of the societies which exist at some of the gymnasia, and it is to be doubted whether the stringent measures that have been taken to remove it, have been at all successful. In other respects, discipline has in general certainly improved upon former times. There is no regulation determining whether the word "You" shall be used in addressing the students, even of the higher classes. Custom decides generally in favor of "Thou." Students not resident in the gymnasial buildings, can not lodge in a tavern nor in any place where there will be more than ordinary temptations to excess, and all students must report their residence to the director. The cost of board at Büdingen, until within a few years, was 100-120 fl., now 180-160 fl.; in most of the other cities, 200-300 fl.; in the teachers' families, somewhat more. The vacation, amounting to 10-12 weeks, vary in the different institutions, but there is usually a long vacation of 3-4 weeks twice a year. Besides a private examination before the director and teachers at the close of the second term, there is also usually an annual public examination which is concluded with special festivities.

Two years' attendance at some one of the state gymnasia is required before one can be admitted to a final examination respecting his academical preparation and fitness to enter the state service, and this rule can be dispensed with by the higher directory only for weighty reasons. This examination is conducted by the teachers of the upper classes, and is always made at the gymnasium which the student has attended. It extends to all the subjects embraced in the course of higher gymnasial instruction. In Greek, the questions are generally confined to Homer, Xenophon, &c., though the more difficult authors are not excluded. In Latin, the examination must not be limited to what has recently been reviewed, neither should it be restricted to what the student has read, nor the more difficult authors be entirely omitted. A knowledge of the grammar, a correct and elegant translation, an acquaintance with the metres, and an explanation of the course of thought are required. The examination in the German language and literature extends over the most important periods of its historical development, and requires a knowledge and explanation of the classic writers, the principles of style, and the art of correct and elegant written and spoken discourse. For the papers to be prepared in the Latin, French, and German languages, material is taken from within the circle of the students' acquaintance,

that there may be a ready communication of thought respecting them without special preparation or assistance. There is here required a readiness of expression sufficient for scientific and practical use, without striking offenses against correctness and propriety. In geography there is expected a general knowledge of the earth's surface, and of its mathematical, physical, and political divisions. In history, a sure and firmly impressed knowledge of the principal periods, events, names, and dates, is indispensable, and it is also expected that the student will be prepared to state, orally and in writing, the connection of the most important events in respect to their causes and results, and the prominent characteristics of all periods and noted personages. In mathematics, the examination should be directed to the studies of the upper class and extend to progression, logarithms, equations of the second and third degrees, plane and spherical trigonometry, and conic sections. In natural history, there is required an acquaintance with the general classification of natural objects and of their distinctive characteristics, as well as with the principles of natural philosophy so far as is necessary to the understanding of the most important phenomena of nature. According to the results of the examination, the students are classed into four grades—the first signifying distinguished merit; the second, decided merit; the third, equal merit and demerit; the fourth, decided demerit. To the first two grades the right of admission to the University is unconditional, and upon the attainment of one of these is dependent all claim to stipends from the state, free board, &c. To students of the third grade admission to the University is conditional. No special privileges attach to the completion of the gymnasial course, except that only students of the higher class can be admitted to this examination.

4. Teachers.

Candidates for teacherships must have completed the gymnasial course. Their examination is conducted by a board at Giessen consisting of the university professors of philosophy, ancient languages, history, Oriental languages, and pedagogy. They require (excepting teachers in the special branches) a thorough acquaintance with the Greek and Latin languages, mythology, antiquities, &c., some familiarity with the Hebrew and Sanscrit, a knowledge of ancient and modern history, the pure mathematics, &c. To supply in some measure the want of a teachers' seminary, a year's trial is required, occupied at first in attendance during the instruction of other teachers, and then in teaching under the guidance of a director or teacher, and thus by advice, encouragement, or censure, he is initiated into the right methods. His appointment by the grand duke follows his nomination to office by the higher directory.

In Darmstadt and Mayence the salaries are highest, the directors receiving 2,000–2,400 fl. and their house-rent; the older teachers, 1,400–1,600 fl.; and the younger, 800–1,000 fl. In Büdingen, they receive from 700 to 1,500 fl. One fourth of these salaries is paid in natural products, which, with some restrictions, are commuted at current prices.

The gymnasial system of Hesse is not inferior to that of any other country; but the plan of instruction demands more than the gymnasia are able to do, especially in the study of mathematics. The laws need revision. The gymnasium at Darmstadt should not be favored above others, and a classification of teachers in respect to their time of service, without regard to the different gymnasia, would certainly be a measure of justice and equity. The want of emulation and of an eager, scientific spirit among the students that is often complained of, calls also for relaxation in the now too strictly drawn rules of discipline.

III. THE REAL AND TRADE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The first real schools in Hesse were established at Darmstadt and Mayence about thirty years ago, both poorly organized, and with, at first, only two classes. Previously, those who wished to obtain a better education than that of the common schools without entering the university, attended the gymnasia as "German scholars," being excused from the study of Greek and Latin. In connection with the school at Darmstadt, a mechanic school was founded in 1822, which received 500 fl. annually from the state. In 1834, in response to an offer from the chambers of 3,000 fl. annually to each of the principal capitals towards the establishment of better endowed and organized real schools, the cities obligated themselves for a like amount, and also assumed the expense of school grounds and buildings, teachers' salaries, and fuel. The three schools were opened in 1834-7. A Higher Trades' School also was soon afterwards established at Darmstadt for advanced industrial education and preparation for all those occupations and arts which are dependent upon the natural and mathematical sciences and graphical dexterity. The progymnasia at Offenbach and Michelstadt were at about the same time changed into real schools, and the cities of Alzei, Bingen, Biedenkopf, and Alsfeld, under the encouragement of state appropriations, founded similar institutions. At Friedberg, there had existed, since the Reformation, the "Augustin School," as a kind of gymnasium; this was changed in 1838 to a "model school," in connection with the Teachers' Seminary, and finally was resolved into a real school. The schools at Mayence and Bingen are Catholic, those at Worms and Alzei are mixed, and the others evangelical, but the sectarian influence is less strong than at the gymnasia. At Offenbach many Jews attend. The tuition fees vary from 12 to 24 florins.

The scholars attending these schools are drawn from all ranks, especially from the mercantile and trades classes. Most of them immediately after their confirmation, commence their apprenticeships, and many also enter the Trades' School at Darmstadt for farther instruction in mathematics, forestry, &c. The three provincial schools are fully organized with seven or eight teachers, besides the director; the rest have only three classes and two or three teachers, with assistant teachers as may be necessary—making a total of fifty-four teachers. The expenses

amount to about 55,000 fl., (\$2,300,) including 23,500 fl. received from the state, and 3,000 fl. from endowments. The total attendance amounts to over 1,300, of which Darmstadt and Mayence have each about 800, Offenbach over 200, Friedberg and Bingen about 100, &c.

The requisites of admission are ten years of age, ability to read and write correctly, and a knowledge of the four rules of arithmetic as applied to simple and compound numbers. The studies are distributed as follows:—

SUBJECTS.	CLASSES.—Hours per Week.			
	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion,	4	3	2	2
German,	4	4	3	2
French,	5	4	4	4
Mathematics,	6	6	6	6
Natural Philosophy,				3
Nat. History and Chemistry,...	2	2	3	4
Geography,	4	3	2	
History,			4	3
Drawing,	2	3	4	4
Writing,	3	2	2	
Singing,	3	2	1	1
English,			3	3
Embossing,				3

This plan, however, is modified, as Darmstadt and Mayence have six classes; Offenbach, with its preparatory school, has seven; and the smaller schools but three.

Religious instruction includes biblical history, with the committing to memory of texts, hymns, and portions of the catechism, church history, the doctrines of religion and morality, and explanations of the most important parts of the gospels, the Acts, and epistles. Where there are classes for scholars that have been confirmed, a preliminary view of the Scriptures is followed by a somewhat extended history of religion and the church, more thorough doctrinal instruction, and an explanation of the influence of the Christian belief upon the life. In the Trades' School at Darmstadt, the life of Christ is studied in connection with the prophecies and with reference to the prevalent forms of scepticism, together with the history of religion and the church, and lectures upon the Bible. At Worms and Mayence special instruction is provided for the Jews by their own rabbins.

Latin is taught three or four hours weekly to two or three divisions of the students so far as to translate Caesar and easier extracts from Cicero. Instruction in French is very much as at the gymnasia, particular attention being paid to mercantile correspondence. English instruction is given to scholars over twelve years of age, with practice in conversation. Greek is taught, two hours a week, at some of the schools which prepare pupils for the gymnasium. German is taught as at the gymnasia, but with stricter attention to the requirements of business. History is com-

menced after some previous study of geography, at first biographical—afterwards more ethnographical and pragmatic; chronological tables are prepared and committed to memory, and attempts made at historical composition. Geography is taught as much as possible in connection with history, and without giving too much importance to names of places and statistical facts, more attention is paid to industrial and commercial characteristics; maps are drawn and geographical tables prepared. Natural history is studied in the lower classes; the higher classes also join in botanical excursions, and advantage is taken of the extensive gardens of Giessen and Darmstadt. The mathematical course includes involution, equations of the first and second degrees, arithmetical and geometrical series, logarithms, and their application to the calculation of compound interest and annuities. In the higher class, two hours are also given to book-keeping. Instruction in geometry extends to the measurement of solids, trigonometry, geometrical drawing, and the forming of geometrical figures of pasteboard. The laws of physics and chemistry are illustrated by experiments, for which the larger schools possess sufficiently complete sets of apparatus as well as laboratories. At Giessen and Mayence three hours are given to modeling, as well to awaken a talent for the art as for the benefit of those occupations in which a taste for ornament is needed. The scholars at Darmstadt have the benefit of the instruction in modeling that is given at the Trades' School. Special attention is given to ornamental and architectural drawing, drawing from nature or models, taking impressions in plaster, &c. Discipline is rendered more difficult from the fact that the scholars are from different and unequally educated districts.

The Higher Trades' School (*Gewerbeschule*) at Darmstadt is peculiarly organized. It consists of two "general classes," so called, and four "department classes," viz., of applied chemistry, applied mechanics, architecture, and engineering. For admission to the general classes, the student must be sixteen years of age and well acquainted with the studies of the higher class of the real school, or of the three higher gymnasial classes. The course of study is as follows:—In the lower class, arithmetic and algebra; surveying, the measurement of solids, plane and spherical trigonometry; descriptive geometry; sketching—each of these divisions four hours in the week—chemistry, history, and geography; English, French, three hours each; German, religion, botany, zoology, two hours each. In the second class, analytical geometry, descriptive geometry, sketching, experimental philosophy, four hours each; chemistry of the metals, three hours; algebraical analysis, two hours; history, German, French, English, and religion, as in the lower class. An examination is held at the close which authorizes admission to the department classes, or to the institution for instruction in the management of forests, or to the university for the prosecution of the study of finance, the higher mathematics, and natural science. The tuition fees amount to 30 fl. yearly. The attendance in both classes is 70–80.

The course of study in the department classes transcends the limits of ordinary school instruction, and a further account of them would be therefore here out of place.

About one-third of the teachers have received no formal training, while many of them have been educated at the teachers' seminaries. Their examination is made by a special committee at Darmstadt, and either extends to embrace all the studies of the real school, or is limited to single departments. In other respects, the position of the teachers is much the same as at the gymnasia, except that their salaries are somewhat less, ranging from 500 to 1,200 fl.

The real schools of Hesse have always enjoyed a large measure of public favor; still they are not free from defects, the chief of which arises from the want of a more general and thorough system of training for teachers. Though technical ability in each branch is a prime requisite, yet a system of specially trained department teachers must weaken the educational energy and force of the institutions. The smaller schools have proved themselves of but little worth, and it would be better for the several towns were the money now expended upon these, to be used in the improvement of common schools. There is less disposition on the part of government now than formerly to establish new ones.

IV. HIGH SCHOOLS FOR FEMALE EDUCATION.

The first school of this kind was founded at Darmstadt in 1829, with three classes and five teachers, beside drawing and music teachers, and a female teacher of needlework, &c., and with 45-50 pupils in each of the five divisions. The usual branches are taught, together with French and English and the history of literature. The teachers are mostly theological students. There are similar institutions at Giessen and Offenbach, and there are also female schools attached to the real schools at Offenbach and Biedenkopf. Besides these, there are many private institutions—three at Darmstadt, with 90-95 pupils; ten at Mentz, with 20-130 pupils; three at Giessen, &c. A very flourishing school was early established at Worms. The tuition fees vary from 30 fl. to 50 fl., or more. Education after confirmation is usually completed at boarding-schools or in private families in the large cities. There are several institutions for the purpose in Darmstadt. Instruction is given in history, the history of literature, composition, religion, arithmetic, and French; but their methods and arrangement are various. One thing is certain, that Hesse participates in the error of the age respecting female education. Too great stress is laid upon the culture of the intellect, whereby the culture of the heart too often suffers, and, still more, her preparation for woman's true office as a capable housewife.

V. ORPHAN ASYLUMS, RESCUE INSTITUTIONS, ETC.

Orphan Asylums.—There has long been at Darmstadt an asylum for poor orphans, but the evils attendant upon the bringing up of so many

children together, caused the government, in 1824, to require that orphans should be placed in charge of respectable Christian families of their native place, if possible, under a contract of the pastor and burgo-master, approved by the district council and directors of the asylum. The pay for each child is 40-50 fl. annually, until his confirmation, for which its foster-parents provide for all its ordinary wants; in case of sickness, there is extra compensation for the physician and medicine. It is the duty of the pastor to see that he receives religious instruction, and is sent regularly to school. If necessary, assistance may be rendered them after apprenticeship for the purpose of obtaining clothing. The number of children thus supported is 1,900-2,000, at an annual expense of 57-58,000 fl. (\$24,000.) In 1854 there was also paid 5,907 fl. in support of 101 apprentices. Of this, the state pays 49,718 fl.; the income of the orphan's fund, 3,583 fl.; contributions taken semi-annually in the churches, at weddings, baptisms, &c., about 9,000 fl., &c. In 1845 the benefits of the asylum were extended to Jewish children.

This system has received much censure; but if the pastors and burgo-masters perform their duty in the choice and oversight of the foster-parents, such family training is certainly to be preferred to that of an orphan-house. Indeed, how would it be possible to provide for 1,900 children in special institutions for the above-mentioned sum?

There is one *rescue institution* in each province—at Arnsburg in Upper Hesse, at Hähnlein in Starkenburg, and at Jugenheim in Rhenish Hesse. Each has ten or twelve acres of land, and from thirty to forty inmates. The girls are usually provided for in private families. The average expenses of each child are 90-100 fl., sometimes defrayed in part by the parishes, otherwise by charitable contributions, for which collectors may be sent out through the country. These institutions are under the superintendence of the school authorities, and are frequently visited by them. The studies pursued are those of the common schools.

The number of *the blind* in Hesse is about 450. An asylum for their benefit was opened in 1850, at Friedberg, with one pupil, by Schläfer, a former teacher of the deaf and dumb. There are now usually thirty to thirty-five pupils, whose ages range from seven to thirty. Twelve have been discharged as sufficiently educated, and are now able to support themselves. The institution provides employment and secures a sale of the articles manufactured. For some years, agriculture has been attended to with success. About 1,800 fl. are received for board, 300-400 florins from proceeds of sales, 3,000-4,000 fl. from charitable contributions. The expenses amount to about 5,400 fl., or 180 fl. for each pupil. Besides the director, there are engaged an assistant teacher, a trades' instructor, a female teacher, and an assistant matron. Religious instruction is given by a candidate for the ministry.

The first state institution for the *deaf-mute children* was established at Friedberg in 1837, for the purpose of enabling the students of the theological and teachers' seminaries to practice deaf and dumb instruc-

tion. Roller, who had previously been at the head of a private institution of his own founding, was made director, and provided the necessary corps of teachers. One-fourth of the board (145-150 fl.) was paid by the parishes or parents, the remainder by the state. Children were provided for in families at an expense of 60-70 fl. In 1840 another institution was founded at Bensheim, for Catholic children. Teachers are now appointed by the state, and a fund has been provided for assisting discharged pupils in acquiring a trade or suitable occupation. At Friedberg there are now seventy-two pupils, at Bensheim fifteen, towards whose support the state contributes 12,000 fl. and the parishes about 2,000 fl. The method of speaking aloud has been introduced into both institutions.

There are twenty-four public institutions for infants, with about 1,500 or 1,600 pupils.

III. THE PROBLEM OF EDUCATION,*

AS COMPREHENDED UNDER THE THREEFOLD RELATIONSHIP OF MAN TO NATURE,
TO SOCIETY, AND TO GOD.

BY J. M. GREGORY,
Superintendent of Public Instruction, of Michigan.

I HAVE assigned myself, in this Address, a triple task. In the *first* part, I propose the somewhat audacious attempt to make a new and exhaustive statement of the problem of Education. In the *second*, I shall apply my statement to the criticism of the educational theories heretofore proposed among men. And, finally, I shall attempt to deduce from my statement a true theory of Education.

He who would unfold an acorn, must needs rear an oak. Such is its preappointed form and destiny. He may make the oak grander and more beautiful by skilful culture, or may blight and belittle it by neglect; but no care or culture can change it to a willow, or enable it to produce apples or grapes.

From an eagle's egg can come only an eagle. No careful incubation can hatch therefrom the owl or the goose, nor can any skill in training rear the young bird of prey to become a swimmer in the waters, or to mouse for its food in the dim twilight.

What the Creator designed each species of creature to be, that it must grow to be, — each one "after his kind," — full-orbed and fruitful, if wisely and naturally reared; dwarfed, distorted, and unproductive if violent or rude hands attempt to bend it from its prescribed rank and place. From the acorn, the oak, — from the egg, the eagle, — from the child, the man; — such is the voice of destiny, the Divine end of development, — of Education, which is only another name for development.

* Read before the National Teachers' Association, at Chicago, Aug. 6, 1863.

And here we reach the first and most general statement of the great *problem of Education*, the chiefest problem of human history and human progress. It is summed up in the two grand, hemispheric words DESTINY, DEVELOPMENT; — *destiny* its limiting *law*, *development* its constructing *force*; destiny its prescribed path and culminating end, development its methodic march and progressive fulfilment. For education is a development, not merely into some ideal roundness of form, some theoretic harmony of parts; but, better and grander than all this, to preappointed ends and uses, — to preordained relations and duties, — in one great word, to Destiny.

Holding in our hands the light of this broad general statement, and moving forward to a closer and minuter analysis, the problem we are studying is seen to be not simple but complex, separating into sections which are themselves mighty subordinate problems; that it is indeed not a single question, but three-fold, its subdivisions answering to the three great fields of human relations and duties.

1. If we may borrow from mathematics a figure which fits but loosely, indeed, to this metaphysical question, the problem of Education is a problem of three unknown quantities, and demands for its solution the resolution of three independent equations. The *first* equation (to continue a figure which will help me to set the great correspondent facts more clearly over against each other) shows us, on the one side, a CHILD — an infant being, with its germinal intellect, sensibilities, and will, — its physical organization, powers, and needs. Over against this child, stands, as a related quantity, as a sort of second member, the universe of beings, facts, and truths, — Nature, with its substances, forms, and forces, its life, sciences, and laws. It is the living being confronting the appointed fields of its life. On this side the growing germ, on that, the prepared soil for its growth; here the heir, there the appointed inheritance; here the unfolding powers of muscle and mind, there the destined theatre and materials for their work; here the future toiler, there the coming toil; here the possible thinker,

the dawning intelligence, there the unmeasured domains of knowledge and truth. It is, in brief, the child in his simple personality that is before us, — the child revealed in those purely individual relations to the world around him that the first man of our race had ere a companion was given him, and such as every human being holds independent of his fellow-men.

And here, our problem is to discover the natural method and full measure of culture and nourishment by which the child may be reared into a sort of responsive equality with Nature, — which may, indeed, fit him to fill out the full round of his duties and destinies in Nature, as its servant, interpreter, and lord. The work of education, under this statement, is simply to develop childhood into a full-grown, active, and healthful manhood, that it may be able to understand and use Nature for its pleasure and support, and may dwell on the earth a wise, powerful, regal soul. Fitting the individual man for his solitary sphere, its mission would end.

2. But there are other relationships lying within the great circle of human destiny. We have traversed only the smallest and lowest segment of that circle when we have observed man as a mere child of nature. Our problem, therefore, advances to still higher questions, and demands, for its solution, other statements, — another equation.

In this second equation, we find again in the first member, the CHILD, — the infant citizen, with his social powers and wants, — his social sympathies, affections, aspirations. On the other side, stands *Society*, — the world of mankind, with its families, brotherhoods, nationalities, and states, — its social order and ideas, — its constitutions, laws, and civilizations, — its trades and commerce, — its arts, schools, churches, and homes, and all the many sided life of communities of men. We have here the dawning man placed over against the aggregated humanity; — on this side, the yearning, loyal, loving soul; on that, friends, family, country; — here the speaking tongue, there listening ears; here the possible brother, friend, parent, patriot, citizen,

subject, sovereign ; — there the great organized mass of human kind in whose families, fraternities, nationalities and states the possible may become the actual ; the rich endowment of powers may ripen into a still richer fruition.

And here, the question of our problem is to determine the fitting food and training for that growth which may make the child equal to his social destiny. Education has here for its work, to rear the infant being into the mature member of society, to inspire him with the great social virtues of justice and benevolence, to train him to social arts, to arm him with social powers and knowledge, and to crown him with social grace. It is to train the tongue for eloquent speech, the ear for intelligent hearing, the mind for communion with kindred mind, the hand for useful arts and co-operative work ; to lift the helpless child into the large-hearted and helpful citizen, fitted for a life of liberty and law, educated to keep step with the grand march of society. How large and grand is this problem of social education can only be shown by an analysis too broad for the limits of this Address.

3. But there remains another field of human relations. Let us advance to the last and grandest segment of the great circle of man's preappointed destinies. Our third equation, to which we now come, — a noble and divine equation, of vast inequalities, — exhibits again, on the one side, the CHILD, but now gifted with immortality, endowed with an inextinguishable religiosity, filled with innate and inappeasable cravings for the infinite and the divine, and fired with hopes, fears, and faiths which transcend both time and sense. On the other side is GOD, standing in the midst of his divine providences and government, commanding love, service, and worship. It is the conscious creature standing before his infinite Creator ; here the infant soul, — the born subject of a divine government, and the perpetual dweller in a divine household, hungering for the guidance of an unerring wisdom and for the bliss of a perfect love, — there the all-enveloping presence of the Supreme Ruler, and the heavenly Father of all ; — here the kindling of an immortal

life, whose highest need is God himself, and there the Divine Love offering itself as the supreme good and last end of its creatures.

How grand the question which the confronting quantities in this equation involve! To find the laws and agencies by which this divine culture is to go on,—the “nurture and admonition of the Lord” by which the child is to be reared up to the height of this divine destiny, and to be fitted for the fulfilment of these sublime duties,—this is the last and highest problem of education. Its work is only ended when out of the germ of a weak and ignorant childhood, it has developed a God-fearing, God-loving and God-like manhood. For who can deny that this also is within the province of education, and one of its necessary aims? It matters not by what aids of supernatural grace, or by what lessons of a divine experience, it may be begun or continued, the process is essentially educational. It is a cultured development, unfolding by regular stages and fixed laws into a mature growth.

Such then is the triple problem of education; such the grand trinity of questions it presents for our study. We recapitulate them:—

1. To train the infant heir of nature and truth up to his inheritance of knowledge and power.
2. To rear the child-citizen up for society and the world of mankind; and
3. To train man for God and fit the soul for its heavenward duties and destinies.

The *first* regards the child as a simple independent being, having faculties fitting him to live in nature, and to comprehend and use it. The *second* contemplates him as a member of society and gifted with powers fitting him to live in the world of men. The *third* recognizes him as having native powers designed to make him a worshipper of God and an heir of heaven.

Educated under the *first* statement, man would be but a splendid savage, a glorious child of Nature, wise in Nature's

learning, stalwart in natural strength, but uncrowned with social grace, and empty of immortal hopes. Educated according to the *second*, he would be the man of the world, — courtly, urbane, sagacious in affairs; an orator, a patriot, a statesman, perhaps, — but shut in to the narrow realms of time and sense, and uninfluenced by those celestial lights and attractions which lift the soul into the regions of the heroic and divine, and link it by immortal hopes to all the great future, thus guarding it against the errors and corruptions of the present, and fortifying it to endure without fainting the inevitable toils and sorrows of its earthly state. Educated in the *third* view, man becomes allied to God and his government; his life is no longer an unmeaning riddle, but a sublime revelation, — a foretaste and prophecy of the grander life to come. Lights of heavenly wisdom now play on his path, and motives of superhuman power move him to action.

Under the *first*, he learns to take care of himself; under the *second*, he is taught to act also for society and his fellow-men; under the *third*, he rises to the full grandeur of an incarnate soul, and becomes a co-worker with Deity, in plans whose wide sweep embraces the universal well-being, and blends the brief and fragmentary histories of earth with the mighty biography of God.

It remains, now, to show that these three great spiritual quantities, — the child's relations to Nature and Truth, to Society and to God, — all enter into the problem of Education; that they exhaust it, and that its complete solution forbids that either shall be left out.

And first and foremost, in this demonstration, stands the testimony of the Great Teacher, who taught as never man taught. In the two great commandments, — "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart," and "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," — thy neighbor *and* thyself, — he groups, under the three heads I have named, the essential relations of human life and the whole duty of man. For what do these wonderfully comprehensive commandments mean but to

bid the soul to hold, as its three high centres of love and regard, *itself*, *Society*, and *God*; — God first and highest? And how shall a man fitly fulfil this duty to *himself* but by growing up to his preappointed place and stature in nature as a wise, active, rejoicing soul? — how to his *neighbor* — that is to Society — but by being educated into a true and perfect member of society; and how show supreme love to God but by seeking to fill out the full measure of his relations to the Divine Being and government? Beyond debate, the Saviour, in these two great laws of *Life*, defines the three grand fields of human relations and duties, and in them embraces the entire sphere of man's development. We have, then, the witness of inspiration to the truthfulness of our statement.

Shakespeare, whose knowledge of mankind seems little short of inspiration, presents, under another form, almost the same view. In his address of Wolsey to Cromwell, the fallen minister charges his secretary, as his great and comprehensive rule of right and duty, —

"Let *all* the ends thou aimest at be thy country's,
Thy God's, and Truth's."

As if he had said, God, Society, and thy soul's loyalty to truth, — these are the grand and all-comprehending aims of thy life.

But there is an evidence nearer and clearer to us all, — lying in the very centre of our consciousness. Let one imagine himself alone in the world, living a solitary life, separate from fellow-men, and ignorant of God. How many relationships, physical and mental, still bind him to the world he lives in, — to the great solitary Nature whose magnificent works, and laws, and forces rise and rule around him! How much of education — of knowledge and culture, strength and skill — he needs, to live safely, wisely, happily, in the solitude! What a field for labor and for life still invites his efforts!

But now let mankind appear, and human society, with all its complex, social, commercial, and political organizations, and its ten thousand busy pursuits, enter the scene; — who does not feel that a new and grander field of relations is opened before

him; that a new and nobler section of his nature is called at once into exercise, and that a new and higher education is needed to fit him for his new circumstances and duties? How wide the range of activities and needs revealed, how vast and varied the new powers called into action, and how inadequate the education of the solitary for the social man!

But now, finally, let the Divine Being and his government reveal themselves over the whole scene; let time be seen linked to eternity, and life blending with immortality; let man's relations to his Creator come into magnificent view, and God's vast moral government be seen in wide and resistless play throughout the world,—and who does not at once perceive rising around him a whole realm of divine relations and duties, calling into action another and the grandest section of his sensibilities and powers? At once there comes the demand for another and higher stage of culture—a grander unfolding of thought and wisdom—to fit us for this sublimer life. A loftier learning, a new and richer education, is needed to lift the citizen of Society into the servant and worshipper of God.

Thus, starting from the solitary soul in the 'midst of Nature, and moving upward by successive stages to Society and to God, we feel, at each step, the birth, as it were, of a new nature within us, demanding, for its guidance and well-being, to be educated to its work. And just because the last step leads us up to the infinite and the divine, it closes the series; there can be no other.

What a weight of confirmation do these views borrow from the words of Royer Collard, the great scholar, whom Cousin pronounces "one of the greatest philosophers of the present age." Mark these words: "Human societies are born, live, and die upon the earth; there they accomplish their destinies. But they contain not the whole man. After his engagement to Society there still remains in him the nobler part of his nature;—those high faculties by which he elevates himself to God, to a future life, and to the unknown blessings of an invisible world."

Finally, it is evident, that although the development of each

of these three departments of man's nature admits of a separate study, yet they all enter as elements into the one great problem of education. In the full and final solution of this problem, no one of these elements can be omitted, any more than, in the algebraic operation from which we have borrowed our principal figure, — the solution of a problem of three unknown quantities, — you can obtain a definite answer without a combined consideration of all the three equations. You may study each equation as a separate statement of some particular fact or truth involved in the question, but you must combine all before the final solution will appear. As well build detached colonnades for some great temple, without any reference to the architect's plans, or the final uses of the structure, as to attempt to educate the great, temple-like nature of man without regarding the plans of the Divine Architect, or the destinies of the soul. If, as I at the outset assumed, "Destiny is the limiting law of development," then whatever element God has put into human destiny must find its place in human education. *Man can only be successfully educated for the purposes for which he was created.*

I need not tarry here to demonstrate the vast importance of these great fundamental principles. If true, then no truths are mightier or more significant in all the realm of educational philosophy. They sweep the entire field of educational science. They afford the unerring clue for the discovery of every truth; they reveal the certain test for the trial of every theory. They exhibit the universal laws of human culture, — laws simple and wonderful as the great law of gravitation, and, like that, of resistless power and prevalence. A detailed analysis, such as only a volume could compass, of the responsive relationships in these three great departments of human life, would tell how grandly they comprehend and explain the problem of education.

If it be urged that this great field of destinies is too broad and uncertain to furnish a practicable basis of educational philosophy, I reply that it is not only as certain and definite as any other, but that it comprehends in itself all other bases, and gathers in its lines the light of them all. Viewing the Child as placed over against Nature, Society, and God, and as having

faculties and functions related to them all, his destinies necessarily involve, and in a true natural order reveal all the correspondences that exist between his nature and the natures to which he is thus related. The natural development of faculties and the natural order of knowledges are but the two parallel sides of destiny. It necessarily involves and explains both.

But better and more emphatic still, this field of destiny and duty is the only one of the bases of educational philosophy on which revelation and experience cast their unerring light. The Bible nowhere reveals to us the secrets of mental philosophy, nor the logical sequences of science; but it does declare the great aims of human life, and gives us, in the Christ, the true pattern of the perfect man. And what is human history but a series of exemplifications of human capabilities? The great artists, poets, orators, statesmen, saints, sages, and heroes, — the world's great men, — all reveal the possibilities that slumber in human nature in these several spheres. They outline in no mean or dim proportions the ideal destiny of man.

Leaving here the direct discussion, let us move forward to the second division of our proposed work. Let us apply the principles evolved as a test to some of the theories of education heretofore broached among men. If we fail to demolish any errors, we shall at least subject our own views to the best test of their strength by exhibiting them in conflict with other opinions.

Most of the theories of education are merely systems of teaching, and concern themselves only with methods of instruction; not at all, or only by implication, with the great ends and underlying philosophy of education. Assuming some proximate aims, and guided by some commonly received maxims, whose truth they do not choose either to question or demonstrate, the whole problem is to them simply a question as to the shortest road to reach the goal of learning. Not a few teachers, indeed, condemn all thoughts of a philosophy of education as a metaphysical dream, and pride themselves on their "practical and common-sense views." Just as though there were no great laws of mental

growth ; no eternal fitness in knowledge ; no profound and controlling principles in man's nature and destiny !

Leaving these foolish empiricists wrapped in the thick mantles of their self-complacency, we advance to the line of grander souls whose clearer insight sees mighty laws underlying all phenomena, and seeks in philosophy to learn the all-comprehending truths. Newtonian spirits ! their very conjectures honor God, while their discoveries open new doors in his universe of truth into which men and nations enter in triumph.

Tried by our tests, the errors of educational philosophies will fall under one of these two heads : First, Errors as to human destiny, — the preappointed ends or objects of human existence ; and, Second, Errors as to the laws of development. For, since destiny, or destination, if the term be preferred, and development sum up all educational science, every fundamental error must lie against one of these.

Under the first head we have three prominent classes of errors, or errorists.

1. The first considers the child simply as related to nature, and as needing to be educated to perform his natural functions and obey the laws of nature. To the philosophers of this creed the first equation in our statement embraces the entire problem of education. To this class belong mainly Rousseau and Herbert Spencer.

2. The second class regards the child chiefly in his social relations, and plans an education that may fit him to play his part as a member of society. It does not, perhaps, wholly disregard his natural and individual needs, but, subordinating these to his wants as a citizen, it seeks to train him in social craft and wisdom.

3. A third but not numerous class would make education wholly religious, counting no relations as worthy of regard save those belonging to another world, and no knowledge useful but that of the Bible. To this error inclined the *Pietists* of the seventeenth century, and some in our own day.

The second grand division of errors springing out of false views of the means and laws of development also exhibits several

classes ; but these will be better described in a detailed statement and criticism of some of the theories in which they appear.

[The somewhat voluminous historical statements and criticism of the educational theories of the schoolmen, the classicists, the humanitarians, the pietists, the philanthropists, &c., and of Milton, Rousseau, Locke, Pestalozzi, Herbert Spencer, and others, which were mostly omitted in the delivery, for want of time, are here omitted by the writer for want of space. They may hereafter be given to the public in another form.]

I come, finally, to the third and last division of the work I assigned myself in this discourse : to exhibit the outlines and main features of a theory of education, in accordance with the statements of the first part of the Lecture. The waning hour forbids more than an attempt to grasp, in a few comprehensive propositions, some of the leading thoughts in such a theory. To expound a complete philosophy of education is work for a volume, not for a few brief pages.

I have affirmed that the great governing and limiting law in education is to be sought in the preappointed uses and destination of the human powers, — that man must be educated to be what his Maker designed him to be, — that from the acorn can come only the oak. I have claimed, also, that the whole of this preappointed destiny and duty of man is comprehended in the three great fields of fact and relation exhibited in the *Child* confronting *Nature*, *Society*, and *God* ; and that these, therefore, embrace the entire problem of human growth and culture ; that all the elements of man's nature, and all the incidents of his destiny are met and provided for in these.

Entering now each of these great fields of human relations in turn, let us seek in each the natural history, so to speak, of the relations, and the philosophy of their development.

First, then, the child appears amid the scenes of nature with a duplex being, — body and mind, — the latter with its triple powers of thought, will, and feeling ; and between him and the world into which he is ushered, there is found to exist the widest and minutest correspondence. For each faculty, physical or mental, there is a field of exercise ; for each want, a supply ; for

each power, a work ; food for the stomach, vision for the sight, truths for the thought, joy for the heart ; no faculty without its work, no field without its worker.

But now the question comes : Are all these wonderful correspondences arranged for mature minds alone ; or are there also provisions for the child ? Is nature a full-grown nature for full-grown men ; or is there also a child-nature for children's souls ? And more than this, is there any succession of steps in nature and truth to meet the successive stages in childhood's growth ? In the answer to these questions lies the key to all true philosophy of education ; for if the adaptations of the world he inhabits, physical and spiritual, thus run parallel with man's progress from infancy, through childhood and adolescence to manhood, then the very law of development is written in nature, and both the method and materials of education are fixed by the unvarying constitution of things.

The provisions in nature for the physical growth, I need not stop to detail. Many of them are matters of common remark. The fitting food furnished for the infant stomach, the soft cushioning of the childish frame to fit it for its long and helpless recumbency, the cartilaginous bones to render harmless its falls, the gradual hardening of these bones to meet the increasing strain of the strengthening muscles, the gradual changing and expanding desires and appetites which tempt the growing powers to wider fields, and all the successive physical changes precisely met by the successive adaptations of the world without, are too well known to need comment. No more beautiful phenomena are exhibited in human life than the changes by which the boy's world becomes in due time the old man's world ; and, happily to each, — to the boy and the old man, — it is found equally fruitful in joy, however varying in look, when enjoyed with a pure spirit and a sound body.

For the mental childhood the world offers similar adaptations. All the sciences begin in the cradle. In the simplest form observed by the child lies the beginning of both Natural History and Geometry. In its first conscious exercise of motion and force begin Natural Philosophy and Mechanics. In the watched

play of a sunbeam is read the first lesson in Optics and Astronomy. With the counted fingers begins Elementary Arithmetic. The first expeditions of the tiny pattering feet invade the realms of Geography and Geology, and the busy play of childish hands explore half a score of sciences. Even the metaphysical sciences are begun here. In the recognized word of endearment, or the familiarized call to food, both Language and Logic has a place; and Mental Philosophy begins with the first perception of thought or feeling read by the child in the mother's face. No pupil enters our public schools who has not already begun the study of every branch of knowledge, and acquired hundreds of facts in every one of the sciences. Every science, in its infancy, began with just such facts as these, — simple facts of sense; and centuries of observation and slow accumulation passed by, before the scientific formula was reached, and the underlying philosophies emerged to view.

Now, by precisely the same paths by which the race has reached the knowledge of science, must each child travel to the same attainment. They move, it is true, over a beaten road, and under the lead of experienced guides, and thus compass in months what it cost humanity ages to learn; but the path from ignorance to enlightenment must remain forever the same, beginning in perceived fact, and ending only in rational philosophies.

A true course of study, therefore, for the purposes of education, must consist, not in a succession of sciences, but in the successive stages of the same sciences. If the primary grade be employed in the observation of simple facts, a second grade will learn to classify and combine these facts; and only in the final grade will pupils study the principles and philosophy of the sciences.

Beautifully correspondent to this sequence in truths is the unfolding march of the mental faculties. First, the senses take the field, a pioneer corps, to explore the new territories of knowledge, and gather materials for the future works. The intellectual life of childhood lies all concentrated in the senses. Next after these, the conception, memory, and association advance

to their work. The gathered facts of sense arrange themselves in groups and classes, and the secondary facts of resemblance and difference with the general notions of quality reveal themselves. Then the judgment and imagination appear on the field, the work of construction begins, and another and subtler class of truths is evolved. Practical principles and working laws are seized and applied, and the stage of the practical arts is reached. Finally, the riper reason comes into action, and marshals the rich array of facts and truths under comprehensive formulas and scientific generalizations, and mounts to the conquest of the great centres and citadels of truth, the ultimate and all-explaining philosophy.

Thus has nature provided successive grades of knowledge for the advancing intelligence; and thus, in exact correspondence, do the successive stages of mental growth answer to the logical unfoldings of science. Thus does destiny forerun development, and thus does development fulfil destiny.

How false, if all this be true, is that plan of study which would master entire sciences in succession, finishing one to its final philosophy, before learning the first facts of another; and how worse than foolish is that method of instruction which would advance, by the simple study of books, to the conquest of any science, through its definitions and descriptions, while the senses have never seen or recognized the simple natural facts that form its very substance! What wonder that the geologist and chemist of the schoolroom knows so little of the geology and chemistry of nature, or that the student of maps remains in pitiable ignorance of the real earth?

But there is another and not less vital law of education growing out of the views we have taken. The child is in the world not merely to study it, but to master it, — to work out his destiny in it; to nourish his soul with its knowledges, indeed, but also to win power and sustenance by the use of these knowledges. Deeds are the fitting crown, as they are the final confirmations of truth. "The knowledge that holds good in working, — cleave thou to that," says Carlyle; "for Nature herself accredits that, — says *yea* to that." "Doubt, of what-

soever kind, can be ended by action alone." How obvious, then, that all study of nature should be with this practical intent, and that the knowledge first sought should be of the things just about us, that we may solve the problems of our own daily experience; that we may come to the mastery, first of all, of nature in our own dooryard and domicile! Is it not a too common fault, even when education begins with the facts nearest home, that it is speedily led off, on the track of scientific generalizations, to remote lands and to facts dimly known to us only through the testimony of others, while our very hearthstones are full of unread riddles? We grow wise in other men's wisdom, but leave all unstudied and unsolved the problems on which health and happiness depend. I know, and consent to, much if not all that is said in favor of disciplinary studies; but of what value is that education that does not give us the eye quick to see, and the mind prompt and wise to meet the emergencies of our own every-day life?

But there is still another law of education lying inwrapped in our statement. Knowledge of nature, however complete or practical, does not fill out the measure of man's relations to nature. The intellect is not the only mental power concerned. Nature has her mighty laws commanding obedience, and her resplendent beauties to be admired, as well as her truths to be learned. The world is a home, as well as a workshop. "Mother earth" is something more than an empty epithet. There is a deep truth in it. Her great household is haunted with a thousand subtle sympathies that bind her children to her breast, and, as a clear-seeing poet has sung, —

"To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language."

By what multiplied arrangements of summer heat and winter cold, of resistless storms, of slow-growing harvests, of endless changes, does Nature train the human will to a great and patient obedience; and by what ceaseless shows of glorious beauty does she seek to lift the human heart to a noble delight

in her mighty system of things! And what educational acquirement is more valuable than this love of Nature? How the soul lifts and expands under it! How the heart softens and grows purer and stronger by its ministry!

And even the intellect quickens to a higher activity and to a more penetrating power under this deep and reverent love. No great master of science can be found who is not also an enthusiastic lover of the fields he explores. With what evident delight did the pen of Hugh Miller linger over the descriptions of the landscapes and rocks; and how sublime the enthusiasm with which our own martyred and glorified Mitchell talked of the stars! And this is a part of destiny, and constitutes one of the forces of education. No element in a profound philosophy of human culture is more significant than this.

To sum up, in brief, then, the main doctrines we have reached in this first of the three great fields of education, I repeat, —

1. Education must proceed by such steps as God has established in the sequences of knowledge and in the answering stages of mental growth. This is the great predetermined path of development, and is the determining law in all true courses of study.

2. Education must keep abreast with the present circumstances and wants of the child, and maintain always its practical intent. As it is the labor and food which fill to-day's duties and desires, that fit for those of to-morrow, so it is at all periods the study and solution of the questions just about us which educate us to study and solve, when we reach them, the questions yet before us. Education, which begins always in experience never transcends a true experience. Knowledge sweeps outward towards the infinite only as the soul rises in its questionings towards this outer limit of thought.

3. Education must lead to the love and enjoyment of nature and truth. This is the mighty developing force by which all true growth and culture go on. The food forced into the stomach or taken only from duty, burdens rather than builds the body.

I cannot pause now to explain the wide applications or the fine agreements of these great laws, nor to show how a whole system of methods may be unfolded from them. Let us advance to another field.

Thus far we have been on familiar ground, and dealt mostly with common and received opinions. I enter now the territory embraced by my second equation, and find the child standing in the presence of society. We are now to inquire how this wonderful social nature may be reared up to fill its appointed place, and play its part in the great array and endless movements of society.

I shall not tarry to demonstrate that it is a proper and needful work of education to fit a child for social life. Social destinies imply and demand social development. It is true the wide-spread neglect of this branch of education in our public schools might be taken as a general confession of unbelief in its practicability; while the poor results of the ill-contrived efforts of certain fashionable schools to make their pupils adepts in social arts, might be counted as proof that social education in schools must be a failure. But the common sense of the world perpetually witnesses that man may be educated for society as well as for science. For in what does the civilized nation differ from the savage, if not in the higher social culture which its citizens have attained; and what prevents the civilized nation from sinking back into barbarism, but the education which each generation gives to its successors in the arts, customs, and ideas of its social state? And in what does the rude and uncultured boor differ from the cultivated and intelligent gentleman, but in that the boor is *rude* and *uncultured*, and the gentleman is *cultivated* and intelligent? Thus does our common speech witness to our common belief that social knowledge and power and grace are legitimate aims and familiar products of culture or education.

But if its practicability were far more doubtful than it is, still would its vast importance and urgent necessity demand perpetual efforts for its attainment. For, remembering that human society is of divine origin, being decreed in the constitution of things, and therefore of permanent existence; and remembering

that so large a section of each man's powers is social that he cannot safely withdraw from society; and reflecting that, by virtue of these indissoluble bonds, there must ever be a close sympathy and a community of fate between society and its members; that if one member suffers all suffer with it; that the common weal is the weal of each, and the common woe is the woe of all; that the vices of the ignorant become disorders in the state, and that each citizen must suffer in his property and rights by every great evil that taints the body politic; and that, finally, the nations tremble under every blow dealt against an oppressed people;—pondering all this in the light of the comments of history and the facts of daily experience, how vital, both to the individual and to the state, seems the necessity of that education that shall teach mankind their relations and duties to society, and train and inspire them to the exercise of social virtues.

And if in the world at large this be true, how doubly impressive its truth in a land like ours, where every social faculty is free, and every social function, from the fireside to the forum, from the citizen to the sovereign, is open to each man; in the land where the people are not the "*Tiers Etat*," but the *entire state*, where, from voting people to President people, it is always and everywhere the people; and where, therefore, the real, if not the written, constitution of the government is the fixed sentiment and will of the people; in such a land how tremendous the need of educating men for society, and training the children of the state to the love and care of the state.

How terribly do the great troubles of the times, the fatal thunder-speech of this war, testify at once to the sad neglect and to the vital need of a truer education of the American people in the learning of social truths and social duties. God is sending us to this awful school to learn afresh the Declaration of Independence and the lessons of national morality.

It is true there are difficulties in the way of a true social education which do not meet us in the scientific. Two obstacles seem especially formidable. First, society itself is diseased, and full of false sentiments and practical evils which tend to neutral-

ize all true teachings. Selfishness, sensuality, and folly set downward like the ceaseless flow of some mighty river, rendering almost hopeless the parent's or teacher's effort to carry upward to purer regions the children of his care. And besides the corrupting influences so rife in the world, there is a threat of failure and ruin ever held over him who shall dare to be perfectly pure and to do perfectly right.

The second obstacle lies in the difficulty of the adoption of any just standard of social education. The ideal of the well-trained citizen is not by any means well and clearly developed in the public mind, and not only many parents, but large bodies of citizens, might strenuously object to a training such as truth must demand. Even so acute a writer as Herbert Spencer, in that singular chapter on Moral Education, from which all morals are carefully left out, warns us that it will not answer to educate a man to sentiments in advance of his times. Care must be taken not to make the pupil much better than his fellows. To train a child to become a great and just and helpful man among his fellows, — to inspire him with a pure and loyal spirit that will not wink at social sins, or share in the fruits of iniquity, — to give him a generous soul that will scorn to roll in wealth while the weak and the unfortunate are pining in poverty or perishing from want, and to teach him especially a philanthropy so broad-breasted and Godlike that it will sternly refuse to shut its justice and its mercy in, within the narrow limits of State lines or National boundaries, leaving "out 'in the cold,'" and counting as having no rights worthy of respect, men of another race or color or creed. Such a social education as this may be high, heroic, divine; but, alas! it would not pay in the market, and would render its possessor singular, if not even a "terrible fanatic."

But, despite all obstacles, the great laws of social growth and social well-being remain in eternal force, and the problem of social education must yet be worked out on this earth. It must be tested and proved whether the development in this part of man's nature may safely answer to his divinely appointed destiny; whether it is safe to educate the citizen to be what God designed him to be.

Let us forward then to mark briefly some of the laws and conditions of this department of education. And here, at the outset, meet us the old questions, Is social education also a *cultured growth* under natural laws? Are there natural adaptations in the bosom of society to meet the successive stages of the child's social development? It needs but brief reflection to answer these questions.

On the very threshold of life the child is met by society represented by his mother. Her tender caresses awaken his social perceptions and teach him the first lessons of that great social science or sentiment of love of kind, afterwards to be expanded into friendships, patriotism, and philanthropy. Her ceaseless care awakens that other great social sentiment of faith in mankind, which will unfold, in due time, into that great framework of public and private trust which underlies and supports all traffic and government among men. Thus does social science, like all other, begin in the cradle.

Next comes society as represented by the father, — society working, organizing, and governing, — society with its social order, its industries, and its laws. And, finally, in the persons of brothers and sisters; society in its equality, its fraternity, and its reciprocal rights appears, and the miniature state stands complete.

Beyond the family there arise, in turn, to the young student of social science, other and larger communities, offering other and wider illustrations of social laws; and, step by step, keeping pace with this successive enlargement of social duties, comes the development of social faculties and sentiments, till the child rises into the citizen, and takes his place in that grander family which we call the state.

And does not the school lie exactly in the line of this development? A society lying between the family and the state, though mostly in the realm of the family, — a little state, with its citizens, rulers, laws, industries, public opinion, and common weal; to make it a true school for the social nature, what is needed, but that it shall be organized into a true society, that its well-administered government teach the practical virtues of

good order and obedience, and that the social sentiments of benevolence, justice, truth, and love of the public good be woven into the practical habits of the playground and school-room.

There are, indeed, positive sciences to be learned in this as in other education. Language, logic, history, moral philosophy and political economy, are all, in the main, social branches, and all needful to the full education of the good citizen. But these also begin with infancy, and are studied in their primary facts by every pupil that enters our schools.

And there is another department of positive inculcations, already hinted at, which are necessary to a true social education, and which our schools may teach. I mean the moral and social sentiments, the love of truth and justice, the love of liberty and right, the love of country and of man. History, past and present, is full of brilliant examples by which childhood may be stirred to the emulation of these great virtues; and daily readings in the schoolroom with daily practice in the school life will speedily establish these principles in the heart as an inspiring force, and work them into the habits as stable elements of character.

Of the training in the industrial and commercial arts, and of instruction in political duties, I can offer no discussion, though these also lie within the lines of social destiny, and hence of social education.

But I cannot pass thus lightly the training by which the child is to be fitted to enjoy society, to find happiness in its daily intercourse, and to grow up to grander power and beauty by its ministrations. Chief in this training is the exercise of a broad and generous sympathy with humanity itself, such as welds the soul to its kind and makes it a sharer in all the toils and triumphs of the race. But next to this ranks the power to influence society, and to contribute to the general happiness. In this consists the grandeur of the social life. And here lies the great value of the power of speech, the ability to talk, to tell without embarrassment and without painful effort, our experience and our thoughts, and win with an easy eloquence our way to the hearts of our fellow-men.

To sum up these hurried hints in some more formal statements : —

1. Social education, like scientific, must proceed by regular and natural steps, marked by the successive stages of society from its beginning in the family to its culmination in the state. The child born into society, must serve in all its grades, before he can be crowned with its final grace.

2. Social education, like scientific, must maintain always a practical intent, fitting the child for present duties and for life in his own country and times, avoiding the false and the temporary, and looking to the permanent and the true.

3. Social education should seek the well-being both of the individual and of society. In the social, as in the scientific, happiness is the impelling power in learning.

I can only advert to the evident truth that social education overlies and vitally interweaves with that which we have called scientific. It is not so much another education, as it is the same raised to higher uses, with an added section. To be a good citizen presupposes a healthful, intelligent, and happy man. All the learning of the solitary recluse is needed by the member of society. But social education lifts the scientific into nobler applications, and quickens it to a grander growth, by the added stimulus of these new aims. Nature unfolds to a sublimer significance when human society enters amid her scenes. Her riddles become revealed truths when read in the light of human needs. Thus the two equations combine in the solution, and become one. But both were needed for the full solution of the problem.

There remains the third and grandest chapter in my theme, the education of man on the religious and divine side, the last and highest realm of destiny. But my hour is already gone, and I must leave its discussion to those other and more favored hours to which I have been compelled to adjourn so many of the great fields which have opened along my main line of thought. I can only avow here my earnest belief in the possibility of such education, and reaffirm, with all the energy I can use, its vital importance and necessity. Beyond doubt there are laws and provisions, hidden in the divine order of things, for man's devel-

opment Godward, — Jacob's ladders, along whose graded steps we may mount heavenward. Certainly there is a natural order, — a true philosophy of education in this department also.

Doubtless there are obstacles in the way of any religious education, even more serious than those in the way of the social; but seeing all the difficulties, who dare pause? Safety and perfection lie beyond. In the great trinity of teaching, we cannot successfully leave the noblest and mightiest element out. As the scientific rises to a higher development in the social, so the social and scientific culminate and are complete only in the religious. Man, the thinker, reaches the summit of his thought only in the presence of the infinite. The last word in science is GOD. Man, the citizen, finds the ultimate bond of his social and political power in the common relation of all to the Father of all. And so the last word of society — of politics — is also GOD. Thus the thinker and citizen are only complete in the worshipper. Development ends only in destiny.

Let us now learn the parable of the planet. Not by the struggling forces pent in her own heart, does our mother Earth move through her orbit; but by the celestial attractions which reach her from above. Not by the light of fires kindled on her bosom, or bursting from her volcanoes, does she shine as a star in the heavens; but by the radiance of the glorious sun, whose light she borrows and reflects. Not by the warmth of her subterranean fires, does she melt the snows of winter from her breast, and robe herself in living green; but by the genial glow that falls upon her from on high.

So with the soul of man. Not by the power of selfish purposes can it rise to the sublime fulfilment of its destiny. Not by the knowledge born of its own reason, or gained by its own insight, can it light its way through the heavens of truth. Not by the warmth of self-inspired and self-seeking affections will it ever burst forth into the glory and fruitfulness of a beneficent and heroic life. Celestial motives must move it, heavenly wisdom must illuminate it, and a divine love must warm it, before it can rise from being a mere meteor soul shooting athwart the fields of life, to be a grand planetary soul shining in the skies of endless blessedness.

IV. THE JESUITS AND THEIR SCHOOLS.

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

It is impossible to estimate rightly the schools of this famous Order without some knowledge of its history. All its institutions, both ecclesiastical and educational, are pervaded by one spirit, and have reference to a single and clearly defined end, the "conversion of heretics," and elevation of the church of Rome. We must, therefore, begin our inquiries with a brief historical survey of the circumstances, that called the Order or Society of Jesus into being, and determined the character of its development.

Its founder was Don Inigo Lopez de Recalde, usually known as IGNATIUS VON LOYOLA, the youngest son of a noble Spanish family, and born in 1491. His youth was spent at the court of Ferdinand the Catholic, and he was early distinguished for the chivalric tone of his character, and his reverence for holy things, as well as for his proficiency in martial exercises, and for his courage. Being wounded at the siege of Pampelona in 1521, a wound which made him lame for life, he was taken to his father's castle, where he amused the weary hours of his confinement by reading tales of knightly adventures. But his attention was soon turned to the Lives of the Saints, and the records of their holy devotion, and heroic self-sacrifice, awakened in him a passionate desire to walk in their steps. With all the energy of his fiery nature, he consecrated himself to the service of the Blessed Virgin, to go forth as her champion and subdue the heathen to the obedience of the faith. At this time, and for many years later, he seems to have looked upon Jerusalem as the fitting field for his activity. So soon as he recovered from his wound, he clothed himself in a beggar's garb, and wandered over Spain, till reaching Barcelona, he embarked for Jerusalem. Here he was not permitted long to remain; and we soon find him again in Spain, endeavoring to supply the defects of his education by the study of grammar and philosophy. He was supported by alms, and devoted his time to the care of the sick. At this time his enthusiastic character, and the ecstasies and dreams and visions, of which he was

the subject, and his zeal in teaching, awakened the suspicions of the Inquisition that he was a member of some heretical sect, and he was imprisoned for forty days, and ordered to give up all discourse upon spiritual matters, for four years. This he would not do, and leaving Spain in 1528, fled to Paris. Here in the college of St. Barbara, he renewed his studies; and here he gathered around him those disciples, whose names afterward became so famous; Xavier, Faber, Lainez, Salmeron, Bobadilla and Rodriguez. These he bound together into a little society, and in August 1534, at the church of Montmartre, they took upon themselves the oaths of poverty and celibacy, and solemnly bound themselves to go, after the expiration of their studies, to Jerusalem, or if they could not do this, to put themselves at the disposal of the Pope, to go where he might choose to send them. The next year, (1535,) Ignatius returned to Spain.

In January 1537 the new society reassembled at Venice, strengthened by three new members. A war between Venice and the Turks making it impossible for them to go to Jerusalem, they employed themselves in the hospitals of the city, showing wonderful self-denial and patience, and in vigorous attempts to awaken a higher religious life in the hearts of the clergy. Here they received admission to the office of priests. After a time, leaving Venice, they came by different routes to Rome. Here they devoted themselves by day to the same labors among the sick and poor as at Venice, and at night they consulted together respecting the constitution and form of the new order. But it was some time ere the Pope was willing to give them the needed permission, it being then a question in the papal councils whether the number of monkish institutions should not rather be diminished than increased. It was not till August, 1540, that the *Society of Jesus* was formally authorized and established by a papal bull. The number of members was at first limited to sixty, but this restriction was, three years later, removed. The first step of the new order was the choice of a General or Chief, and all votes were given to Ignatius. It is a remarkable fact that he immediately after devoted himself, for several weeks, with all the ardor of his nature, to the personal instruction of children of the church. The office of General, Ignatius held to his death in 1556.

Before examining the internal organization of this society, let us follow a little way its external history. The labors of the Jesuits embraced three departments, preaching, confession, and education. Of the latter, Ranke remarks; "To this they thought of binding themselves from the first by a special clause in their vows, and although that was not done, they made the practice of this duty im-

perative by the most cogent rules. Their most earnest desire was to gain the rising generation." So small in its beginnings, the order very rapidly increased in numbers and influence. At the time of Loyola's death it had established itself in thirteen Provinces, of which seven were in Spain and her colonies, and three in Italy. Their schools and colleges were very soon found in most of the chief cities of Catholic Christendom. The *Collegium Romanum* was established at Rome in 1550, and the *Collegium Germanicum* for the education of German youth, in 1552. Other national colleges of the same general character soon followed,—one for the English, one for the Greeks, one for the Hungarians, &c. In 1551, Ferdinand established a college at Vienna; in 1554, one was founded at Coimbra in Portugal; in 1556, one in Bavaria; in 1559, one in Munich. Pope Gregory XIII, (1572—1585,) was very active in this way, and it is said that twenty-two Jesuit colleges owed their origin to him. In a very few years the education of the higher classes, and of the leading minds in all the parts of Europe that yielded allegiance to the Roman pontiff, was in the hands of the Society of Jesus.

But this activity was not confined to education. Their members were busy in every part of Protestant Christendom to which they could get access, striving to bring back the people to the old faith. And their missionaries went forth into all parts of the heathen world, converting idolaters, and establishing churches. In every department of religious enterprise, they were conspicuous among their brethren, and in most, the recognized leaders.

The rapid increase of the Order in numbers, and in educational influence, may be seen from the fact, that, beginning with a membership limited to sixty, in the year 1626 they numbered more than fifteen thousand, divided into thirty-nine Provinces, and possessing 803 houses, 467 colleges, and thirty-six seminaries. In 1710, they had 612 colleges, and twenty-four universities, besides a multitude of lower schools. In the middle of the eighteenth century their number amounted to more than 22,000, with 669 colleges, and 176 seminaries, and in France alone, they had almost 700 schools.

But, though thus successful, the Society of Jesus met, from the first, strong Catholic opposition in many quarters. Several of the other orders, especially the Dominicans and Franciscans, looked upon it with great jealousy and dislike. Many of the universities regarded their colleges as rival institutions, and were angry at the great favor showed them by the Pope, and princes, and nobility. And some of the Popes, even, feared its growing power and popularity. Very early, Paul IV, demanded that the General should hold

his office only for three years, and not for life as the constitution appointed, but the Jesuits resisted, and his successors yielded the point. Still it was felt by the papal councils that the power in his hands was excessive, and it was feared that it might be wielded to dangerous ends, a fear that time showed to be just.

To trace in detail the history of the Order would be foreign to our present purpose. Suffice it to say, that as it became numerous, rich and powerful, it lost in some measure its early religious character, and became ambitious and worldly. Its members drew upon themselves the hatred of kings and statesmen by their continual intermeddling in political affairs, and by their attempts to make the authority of the church dominant over that of the state. For this cause they were banished from the territories of the Republic of Venice, as early as 1606. With increasing wealth came luxury, and many of the lay members engaged in traffic and commerce; the extensive ramifications of the order giving them great facilities for the successful prosecution of commercial enterprises. The Society thus became the owner of large factories in many parts of the world, from which rich revenues were derived. The richly endowed colleges became often banks of exchange. As the interests of the Order were held paramount to all other interests, they did not hesitate, notwithstanding the vows of obedience, to array themselves against the Pope, when they found it for their advantage. Thus gradually they lost the favor of all parties, and toward the close of the eighteenth century, the Society was driven out of all the Catholic kingdoms of Europe. Russia alone, moved by considerations of the educational advantages derived from them, offered them an asylum. In 1773, Pope Clement XIV, suppressed the Order. But though thus formally dissolved, the Society still kept up its organization in secret, and its members, though under other names, labored incessantly to regain their former position. It was not, however, till 1814, under Pope Gregory, that the decree of dissolution was repealed. Its history from that time has been varied, but it seems to have been slowly but steadily gaining in numbers and influence. In 1844, the number of members was estimated at 4,133, in 1855, at 5,510, in 1860, at 7,144. This latter number was thus divided; in France 2,181, in Belgium 531, in Holland 205, in Spain 680, in Austria 455, in Prussia 527, in England 379, in America 444, in Italy 1,742, and more than 1,000 at different missionary stations.

II. INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SOCIETY.

We turn now to the internal organization of the Society. This is simple and admirably adapted to the ends it had in view. All

power is concentrated in the hands of the head or General, (*Praepositus Generalis*), who holds his office for life. He is elected by the members of the order, represented by delegates in General Congregation. This body can give him advice in particular cases, but can not control him in his actions. He is to the Order, what the Pope is to the church, the representative of God. "In him should Christ be honored as present in his person." The ultimate decision rests with him alone, and only in case of some very flagrant and gross abuse of his authority, can the General Congregation interfere to depose him. It should be said that hitherto no such deposition has ever taken place. This possession for life of almost absolute power, lifts the General above all fear of those under him, and makes it unnecessary to seek, by favoritism, or weak concessions to faction, a transient popularity. In the hands of a strong, sagacious man, it gives a stable character to the policy of the Order, and a unity and energy of action attainable in no other way. But his knowledge of the characters and capacities of its members must be commensurate with his power over them, to enable him to employ them with wisdom, and to this end he is the ultimate depository of all the secrets of the confessional. Thus he knows what is passing in the hearts of all under him, and can wisely choose his instruments, and adapt his measures to the end to be attained.

Under the head of the Order stand the chiefs of various provinces, or the Provincials, (*Praepositus Provincialis*), who in their several jurisdictions represent him, and are responsible only to him. These hold their offices for three years. After them come the heads of Houses, the rectors of Colleges, and the superiors of the Residences, who also all hold their offices for three years.

Aside from these official distinctions, the members of the society are divided into four classes, the Professed, Coadjutors, Scholastics, and Novices. The latter are those who have sought admission to the order, and been accepted, and placed in one of the houses established for them, there to spend the two years of their novitiate in meditation and prayer, and in the performance of various specified labors, under the care of the master of the novices, (*magister novitiorum*.) Having successfully passed this period of probation, the novice enters into one of the colleges of the society, and becomes a scholastic. Here he gives five or six years to the study of grammar, and rhetoric, and philosophy, &c; and having completed the course, enters upon the work of teaching. As a teacher, he begins with the lower class, and teaches it in the same order of studies through which he himself has just passed. After five or six years thus spent, he

enters upon the study of theology, to which four or six years are given. Then a year is spent in the repetition of the spiritual exercises, and the probation of the novitiate; and at length at the age of 30—32, he is admitted into the priesthood.

Becoming a priest, the scholastic takes the oath either as a *coadjutor spiritualis*, or as a professed. The distinction between these two classes is this, that the former promises to devote himself with all zeal to the work of education, while the latter binds himself to execute any mission the Pope may intrust to him. Ranke in his History of the Popes, thus explains the way in which the distinction arose. "As the professed members had bound themselves by the fourth vow to continual travel on the service of the Pope, it was inconsistent to assign to them so many colleges as were now required, establishments that could only flourish through their constant presence. Ignatius soon found it necessary to constitute a third class, between the professed and the novices, spiritual coadjutors, priests like the others, possessed of requisite learning, and who expressly engaged themselves to the duty of instructing youth. These coadjutors were allowed to settle themselves in the several localities, become residents, gain influence, and control education." The professed constitute the smaller class, and are really the aristocracy of the order, since from their ranks only, can the General and the provincials be taken, and they are the authorized members of the General Congregation. Thus under the General, the law making power, and the chief offices, are in their power. When not employed in the service of the Pope, they reside in houses especially appropriated to their use.

The coadjutors, who are divided into several classes, some engaged in preaching and teaching, *coadjutores spirituales*, some in secular pursuits, *coadjutores temporales*, constitute, with the scholastics, the largest and most laborious part of the order. The care of the colleges, and of the schools, is almost wholly in the hands of the spiritual coadjutors, the lay coadjutors fulfilling other duties. By bull of Paul III, the society was authorized to elect lay members, to be employed in various kinds of secular labor, but who were not permanent members, the relation ceasing when their work was done.

There are two or three features in the constitution of this Order which at once arrest our attention, and which we must take into account if we would explain its success, or understand the character and working of its institutions. The first of these is the principle of implicit obedience. In none of the monkish orders is the principle carried so far as here. Each member must obey his superior

as he would obey God. So long as a command does not involve manifest sin, it is binding upon the conscience. *Superioris vocem ac jussu non secus ac Christi vocem.* The members must be in the hands of the chiefs as passive as if dead, (*ac si essent cadaver,*) or as a stick that yields without resistance to every motion of the hand that bears it. Not only the will, but the understanding was so to be brought into subjection, that the obedience should be both instantaneous and unquestioning. To obey, and not to reason, was a fundamental principle. By thus making one will to pervade the body, it was believed that there might be perfect unity in purpose and action, and the result showed the correctness of this belief. The boast of Cæsar that he had no soldier who would not leap into the sea at his bidding, might be truly made by the Generals of the Society of Jesus, but with this essential distinction, that the former obeyed from personal love to his chief, the latter because the command came clothed with divine authority.

The second feature to be noticed, is that each member was made to feel that the interests of the Order were paramount to every other interest. This had claims upon him superior to those of kindred, and friends, and country. He was taught to say, not "I have parents, and brothers, and sisters," but, "I had parents, and brothers, and sisters, now I have them no more." It is said of Faber, one of Ignatius' early converts, that on reaching his native town after an absence of some years, he would not stop to visit his kindred and friends, but passed on. This was deemed a highly meritorious act. He was to be dead to all other relationships of life, and alive only to those which bound him to the Society. He must be a true cosmopolitan, a sojourner, as he might be sent in any country, but a citizen of none. To the prosperity of the Order he consecrated all his energies, to it all things were made subordinate. It stood to him instead of all other objects of affection, of family, of kindred, of country. Of course this entire devotion pre-supposed that in serving the Order he believed himself to be serving the church, and God. Only thus believing, was it possible that such complete self-abnegation could so have gained the mastery.

It needs no observation to show that a body of men so wholly under the will of their chiefs, so dead to all considerations but that of the success of their Order, must have been potent allies, and dangerous enemies. All historians agree that their efforts stayed the progress of the Reformation, and rolled back the tide of conquest that threatened to sweep over all the Catholic countries of Europe.

III. EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES.

We turn now to the subject which especially interests us, the educational institutions of the Jesuits. As we have seen, from the very first existence of the Order, the instruction of the young had been made a cardinal point. Wherever its members went, schools and colleges, and universities, were rapidly established. In a short time the number of pupils under their care, in all parts of Europe, was very large. This rapid and great popularity was doubtless in considerable measure, owing to their zeal and energy, and to the fact that the existing schools were very imperfect, and far below the exigences of the times; but something is also to be ascribed to the intrinsic excellence of the system of education they adopted. This system received its definite and permanent form, under *Acquaviva, the fifth General of the order, who held office from 1581 to 1615, and a man highly distinguished for his administrative ability. The Congregation that elected him, recommended that a commission should be appointed of six fathers from the various Catholic kingdoms, who should draw up a plan of study, based in part, upon that followed in the Collegium Romanum. This commission was subsequently enlarged, and in 1599, made its report. The order of studies as then adopted, continued, with a few additions, to be the order till the dissolution of the society, in 1773. After its restoration in 1814, a new commission was appointed to revise it; but it was determined in General Congregation in 1820, that the former

*Claudius Acquaviva, the fifth General of the order, was born in the province of Bari, in southern Italy, on Sept. 14th, 1543. He was of a noble family, several members of which had highly distinguished themselves both in the service of the state, and of the church. A bright career was open before him, but he preferred, at the age of twenty-five, to enter into the Order of Jesus. Here he soon distinguished himself by his talents and learning, and was early made a Provincial, first at Naples, and then at Rome. He was elected General in 1581, at the age of thirty-seven. It is said that the selection of so young a man, excited the surprise of the Pope, but it was justified by the great abilities of Acquaviva, and the skill with which he managed affairs. His first care was to secure to the Order good leaders, not only virtuous men, but such as understood their position, and avoided extremes. The times were stormy, and he had to reconcile internal dissensions, and ward off attacks from without. His relations to Pope Sixtus V. were often delicate, and he had need of the utmost caution not to bring about an open rupture. Sixtus wished to change the constitution of the order, and make it more democratic, and less under the direction of the General, and also to withdraw the promised subsidies. By adroit management, Acquaviva pacified the Pope, till his death freed the Order from the impending danger. He had also much difficulty in making the Spanish members of the Order obedient to his authority.

It is, however, as the author of the famed *ratio studiorum*, that Acquaviva is best known. He named in 1584, a commission of seven persons of various nations, the result of whose labors, is that course of study which remains in substance, in use to day in all the Jesuit schools.

Acquaviva died on the 31st, January, 1615, after a Generalship of thirty-four years. According to d' Alembert the Society of Jesus owes more to him than to any of its chiefs for its success in after times. The work which he did seems to have been this—that he harmonized the religious and political elements, and made the Order what it has continued to be.

order should not be essentially changed. Little, however, seems to have been done in the matter down to 1830, when * Roothaan, the General at that time, appointed a new commission. The changes made by this commission had reference mainly to the higher departments of study, theology, philosophy, mathematics and physics. The ancient course of instruction in the lower departments was left unchanged, except in regard to modern languages and history. The reasons given for thus retaining a system which had seemingly become antiquated, will appear in the sequel.

So far as regards the external organization of the Jesuit schools, we find them to partake of the general character of all the institutions of the Order. No one not a member was permitted to teach, unless in some cases in the lowest schools. As has been already stated, every member after spending five or six years in study, was required to devote a like period to teaching. Thus all the teachers were not only members of the society, but had been educated by it, and were familiar with its methods of instruction. And in the giving of instruction, nothing was left to the choice or will of the individual teacher. Every thing, even to the details, was prescribed by the laws, and from these there could be no departure. And the same principle of implicit obedience ruled here as elsewhere. As it was a rule of the Order that it would not accept any college which did not, in addition to a dwelling, a school edifice, and a church, possess an endowment in money or lands sufficient for the support of at least fourteen persons, it was thus raised above the necessity of adapting its methods of instruction to popular tastes, or of imitating the schools around them. This enabled them also to make their instructions gratuitous, a circumstance that naturally tended much to their popularity. The care of these endowments, as of all merely business matters, belonged to the lay brethren.

Colleges.

The colleges were of three classes, according to the number of teachers. The first must, as a rule, have twenty, the second, thirty, the third, which ranked as a university, seventy. The general supervision of each college was given to an officer called a rector, usually taken from the ranks of the older teachers, but who himself took no part in the work of instruction. To him it belonged to appoint the teachers under him, to note the progress of the pupils,

* Roothaan was born at Amsterdam, Nov. 23d, 1785, elected General of the Order, 1829, and died 8th May, 1853. His activity was especially directed to three points; 1, Foreign Missions; 2, the promotion of scientific studies; 3, the more strict practice of the exercises of Ignatius.

and to watch over all that concerned the prosperity and usefulness of the institution. He was appointed by the General, or his plenipotentiary, and held his office for three years, and all must render obedience to him as to the representative of Christ. Under him were several officers who had special charge of the studies, and discipline of the pupils, and who were like himself, taken from the ranks of the spiritual coadjutors. With the colleges were generally united pensions, or boarding schools, in which pupils, especially those of rich and noble families, were received for a moderate compensation; and sometimes also seminaries for the education of priests. There were also in some cases day schools attended by youth, who boarded at home, and these were open to the children of Protestants under certain restrictions.

The course of study in these institutions divided itself into higher and lower; *studia superiora et inferiora*. The smaller colleges limited themselves to the latter, and to these we shall mainly here confine ourselves. The lower course of study occupies six years, which are thus divided: the first year is occupied with the school Latin, or the rudiments; the second, with grammar in its first elements; the third with syntax; all these are called the grammatical classes. The fourth year is occupied with philology and poetry, and the fifth and sixth years with rhetoric; the latter two are called the humanity classes. The subjects of study, the books to be used, the amount of time to be daily spent, and the methods of instruction, are all accurately prescribed, and can not be departed from.

The character of this course of study can be understood only by keeping in view the fact, that the knowledge of the Latin tongue was regarded by the Jesuits as of the first importance, and that all other knowledge was made subordinate to this. The ability to speak it and write it with correctness and fluency, is constantly held up before the pupils as the chief end of their efforts. The Latin has always been greatly honored in the Romish church, as the language of the ritual, and of the larger part of her theological literature, but to the members of the Order the mastery of the language had a special value, since it enabled the natives of different countries to converse freely with each other whenever they met, and served them as a secret tongue, when they wished their conversation to be unknown. And the prominent place given it under Acquaviva, it retains even to our own day. The present General of the Order, (Peter Beck, chosen 1853,) writing to the minister of education of Austria, says, "Since the Latin tongue is the tongue of the church, the tongue of Christian tradition, and since in this tongue the scientific

treasures of all ages and of all nations are preserved, and no other has so developed itself for the expression of faith and science, the Society of Jesus has for this tongue a special love, and makes use of it for the purpose of giving instruction in its schools."

As the chief object in this study of the Latin language is to get the mastery of it as of a living language, and to make it available for practical ends, it follows that the classics are read more for their style than for their ideas, and for this reason considerable portions of them are committed to memory in order to give the pupils command of words and phrases. The lowest class begins with the rudiments of the language, and learns, during the first year the declensions and conjugations, with some of the simplest rules of syntax; *gradus hujus scholæ est rudimentorum perfecta, syntaxis inchoata, cognitio*. Easy passages are selected for reading, attention being paid chiefly to the construction of the sentences. A beginning is also made in the practice of composition, and in committing to memory short sentences, as a foundation for speaking, for the latter purpose use being made of the so called "Amalthea," of Pomey, a curious miscellany of odds and ends. The age of members of this class was from nine to twelve.

The second class continued the study of grammar, following the method already indicated. The object aimed at being a general knowledge of its rules and principles, special attention was given to the syntax. Of the authors read, Cicero and Ovid were the chief,—some of the epistles of the former, some of the simplest poems of the latter. Sometimes also some of the Eclogues and Georgics of Virgil were studied.

The third class—the age of the pupils being from thirteen to fifteen years—completed the Latin syntax, and the grammar generally, and began the study of prosody. Among the works studied were the more difficult letters of Cicero, and some of his didactic writings; and passages of the poets, of Ovid, Virgil, Catullus, and Tibullus. The latter, however, were not read at random, but only certain selected and expurgated portions; *selectæ aliquæ et purgatæ*. Parts of the "Amalthea," were also committed to memory.

During these three years the Greek was studied with the Latin, and the same general method of instruction pursued, but it held a very subordinate place, as appears both from the very little time daily allotted to it, and from the few authors read. In Greek the compendium of Gretser was used; in Latin the same grammar which was adopted in 1581,—the *Grammatica Emmanuelis*, prepared by Emmanuel Alvarus,—continues, for the most part unaltered, in use to the present day.

Besides these two ancient languages, nothing is spoken of in the early plan of studies, *ratio studiorum*, but "religion," by which term was meant the learning by heart the little catechism of Peter Canisius, and of the Latin Gospel; and "Erudition," comprising some facts respecting sacred history, an outline of the four great monarchies and of the present kingdoms of the world. Of arithmetic, of geography, of history, as distinct departments of knowledge, nothing is said. Nor was any instruction given at first, in these institutions respecting the mother tongue of the pupils; but this omission causing great complaint, it was determined in 1703, that they should be taught it, although the teaching seems to have been fragmentary and imperfect. Nor was any attention given to the modern languages till the revision of the studies in 1832, when some concessions were made in this point to the spirit of the age.

The two higher classes, distinguished as the "poetical" and "rhetorical," *quarta pœtica, quinta rhetorica*, had as their goal, eloquence, or the art of writing and speaking well. The foundation of this art was laid in the studies of the fourth class, *præparare veluti solum eloquentiæ*—which were directed to the knowledge of the structure of the language, and of the rules of rhetoric, and to the acquisition of general information. The studies of the fifth class, embracing two years, were not well defined; *gradus hujus scholæ non facile certis quibusdam terminis definiri potest*, but had reference more or less direct to oratory, the *facultas oratoria*. The methods of study followed were essentially the same as in the lower classes. Some selected portions of an author are read in the morning, such as treat of eloquence, tropes, figures, &c., and in the afternoon, such as treat of the art of poetry. The Latin classics are used mainly with reference to style, that the pupils may learn to express themselves with fluency and propriety. The favorite author is Cicero, whose works are studied at all stages of the course, the orations being reserved to the last. Of the historians, Cæsar, Sallust, Livy, are read; of the poets, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Martial; care being taken in all cases that any thing immodest is first expurgated.

In these two classes, as in the earlier, the Greek is taught with the Latin, and continues to hold a subordinate place; but while the other classes devote but an half hour to it each day, the fifth class devotes an hour. The scholars study some of the easier prose writers, and some of the early Christian poets. The Rhetoric of Aristotle is studied, not in the original, but in the Latin. In both languages, the object is, throughout, to gain such knowledge of them as to enable the pupil to speak and write them. But in regard to the Greek, this was never, or at least very rarely, attained. The Latin,

however, being constantly used in the school as the medium of instruction, and by the pupils of the higher classes in their conversation with each other, became by degrees very familiar, and was spoken and written with great fluency, if not always correctly, or often with elegance. How many Greek authors were actually read, it is difficult to say. The list given of those to be perused in the last year, embraces Demosthenes, Plato, Thucydides, Homer, Hesiod, Pindar, and others of the ancients, together with Gregory of Nazianzen, Basil, and Chrysostom. It is apparent, however, that only very small portions of these could possibly have been read. It is to be remembered that the pupil ended the course, as a rule, at the age of fifteen or sixteen, and then proceeded to the higher course, *studiis superioribus*, during which no special attention was given to philology.

Aside from the Greek and Latin, the instruction of the pupils in other departments of knowledge was, in the higher, as in the lower classes, very fragmentary and imperfect. As a religious text-book the catechism of Canisius was used, and the Gospels in Greek, or the Acts of the Apostles, or the Panegyrics of Chrysostom, read and explained. Besides this, there was a very miscellaneous and undefined field embraced in the phrase *eruditio*, points of archæology, and history, symbols, proverbs, inscriptions, architecture, remarkable facts, and the like, but as instruction was given upon these multifarious points only upon the weekly holiday, it is apparent that much real knowledge could not have been acquired. It is not a little remarkable that arithmetic is mentioned only once, and incidentally, and that the only time given to it was in the last week of each term, when the severer studies were ended. To the physical sciences no time was devoted except in the brief interval between the examination and the division of the prizes, and that mainly to amuse the pupils with entertaining experiments. But we must add that the Society, yielding to the demands of the times, does now give much fuller instruction in history, geography, mathematics, and the mother tongue. Still, even now it must be said that the instruction in these branches is very imperfect. The study of the Latin and Greek continues to be, as it has ever been, the chief object of attention, and casts all else into the shade.

In regard to text-books, changes are permitted very slowly and cautiously, the old being retained as long as possible, and great care is taken that none of them contain any thing contrary to the Catholic faith and dogmas. Only expurgated editions of the classics are used, and such as can not be purged, as Terence, are not read at all.

The pupils are permitted to read no books in private which have not been examined and approved of by the teachers, nor to bring them into the school, or have them in their possession. The time devoted to each branch of study was very precisely marked out, and could not be departed from. The whole time given each day was five hours, two and a half in the morning, and the same in the afternoon, except in the highest class, which was four, making for the week in the former case, twenty-seven hours, in the latter from twenty-one to twenty-two; no allowance being made here for the feast and fast-days, which limited the school time still more.

The order of exercises each day is substantially as follows: At six and three quarters A. M., the bell is rung, and the pupils begin to assemble; at seven, all go together to mass, and at seven and a half the school opens with a short prayer, both pupils and teachers kneeling with uncovered heads; and closes in the same way. Before beginning to read, the teacher makes the sign of the cross; a half hour is given to collecting and correcting the written tasks, hearing recitations from memory, &c. From eight to nine the lessons of the preceding day are repeated, then a new passage is read and explained; at nine, matter is dictated for a new composition in Latin or Greek, which is always so brief that it can be written and corrected within an hour; in the lower classes two or three lines suffice. Whilst the scholars are occupied in this labor the master gives help to the more backward pupils. In the afternoon the school begins at one and a half and follows the same general order. At its close the teacher gives thanks to God. On Tuesdays and Thursdays the order is somewhat varied, and on the weekly holiday the morning school is shortened half an hour, and the afternoon session omitted.

The prescriptions which are very minute, respecting the studies not only of each day, but of each month, and for the discipline of the school and its management, we here pass by.

Characteristic Features.

From what has been said, it is not difficult to point out the characteristic features of the Jesuit schools. They may be summed up in these points: first, the limitation of the course of study to a few subjects; second, the culture of the memory by the practice of repetition; and third, the awakening of the ambition of the pupils by constant appeals to the feeling of emulation.

The one central thing in the course of study, is the knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, especially of the former. In the

original plan, *ratio studiorum*, scarce any thing else was mentioned; and although within a few years the course has been enlarged, still, these languages retain their high position. This concentration of the time and labor of the scholar upon a single point, brings with it some very decided advantages. What is learned is usually learned thoroughly, and the mind is thus made, in its measure, clear and strong, and the danger of great superficiality, of knowing a little of many things and nothing well, is guarded against. Yet on the other hand, the Jesuits, as has been remarked, attach a value to the Latin tongue, which most in our day will regard as exaggerated. To speak it and write it fluently, is an acquisition hardly worth its cost. We do not here intend to enter at all into the discussion respecting the comparative value of the study of language and of science as a means of mental discipline. We speak only of the fact that, to attain this mastery over the Latin, not only science in almost all its departments, but also modern languages and literature, must be neglected. 'Six years, from the age of ten to sixteen being thus spent, and in this period only the merest smattering of mathematics, or history, or geography, having been acquired, it will, we think, be rightly judged that the time could have been more profitably employed.

As to the mode in which the Latin is studied, there may be an objection taken, and we think a just one, in that the object is not to enable the pupil to enter into the genius of the language, and to imbibe its spirit as the deepest, truest expression of national life, but to obtain a verbal, external command over it as a vehicle of communication. The study, therefore, becomes a mechanical one, and serves rather to discipline the memory, than to develop the higher faculties of the mind.

A second characteristic is the cultivation of the memory by the frequent repetition of the lessons. In the lower classes, besides words and grammatical rules, passages from Cicero are selected and learned by heart, and care is taken that these shall be short, not more than four to seven lines. The catechism is also committed to memory. In the higher classes, and especially in the highest, there are frequent declamations, that what has been learned may be fittingly expressed. It is the duty of the teacher to explain the lesson, and illustrate it by examples, and the next day the pupil must repeat the illustrations in substance, or verbatim. Sometimes the remarks of the teacher are written down by the pupils and next day repeated from recollection. That the lessons may not be beyond the grasp

of an ordinary memory they are made very short, and being often repeated can not be easily forgotten.

That complete command may be attained over the Latin, not only is it used by the teachers of the higher classes in their instructions, and in all their intercourse with the scholars, but the scholars themselves are required to use it in their private intercourse with one another. The use of the mother tongue is visited with censure, and some mark of disgrace. By this continual practice the language soon becomes very familiar, at least in its colloquial forms.

The third characteristic is the intense emulation which is aroused among the pupils. The teacher is directed to appeal to this principle in every possible way. "He, who knows how skillfully to awaken emulation, has the most efficient means at his command, and in itself a sufficient means, to attain success in his office. Let him therefore value this weapon highly, and diligently inquire how he can attain with it the greatest results." Among the means to this end always employed, are the establishment of different offices with Latin titles, Prætors, Censors, Decurions, among the pupils, who are chosen according to the results of the monthly studies—skill in composition being most highly prized. Those who have written the best, receive the highest dignity, and others according to their merits. Frequently the school is divided into two parties, called now, Romans and Carthagenians, now, Greek and Trojans, under like officers, who contend with each other which shall best answer the questions put by the master; or they put questions to one another. Sometimes an officer challenges another to a trial of knowledge and skill, or a private may challenge an officer, and if he overcomes him, takes himself the office, or receives some badge of his triumph. The highest in rank, called a dictator, wears upon his breast a gilded key upon a rich ribbon, and a costly bound register, in which are inscribed the names of the dictators. These contests take place regularly at fixed times. Besides these contests various artifices are used to awaken the ambition of the scholars, as the writing down the name of one who has distinguished himself upon a public table, or the public mention of his name each month; as on the other hand, a great offense is entered in the censor's book, and the name of the offender publicly proclaimed.

But in addition to these ordinary means, great importance is given to the yearly examination and the distributions of prizes. After the feast of the Assumption of Mary, the pupils begin their preparations for examination, which occupies nearly a month. The ceremony of distributing the prizes at the end of the school year in

September, is publicly commemorated and numerous attended. The names of the victors are announced to the audience, and coming forward they receive their premiums before the assembly. Often a comedy, prepared by one of the teachers, is acted, and poems repeated. Each teacher also gives little presents, images, and books, or posts of honor, to such as have in any way distinguished themselves.

From these characteristic features of the mode of instruction in the Jesuit schools, let us consider the principles that lie at the basis of their whole educational system; and the first and fundamental one is that education must be religious. The pupils must be educated for God and the church, and every thing must be adapted to this end and subordinate to it. But religion and morality are not matters of the intellect merely; they can not be so much learned as practiced. Hence great stress is laid upon pious practices, as pilgrimages, hearing of mass, adoration of images, saying of prayers, and the like. It does not appear that very much instruction was early given to the pupils about religious dogmas. The catechism of Canisius, *summa doctrinæ christianæ*, was committed to memory, but this seems to have been as much to teach them Latin as theology. So the Gospels in Greek and Latin were read and explained. Beyond this no special dogmatic religious instruction was given. But the pupils were made daily to attend mass, and accustomed to offer certain prescribed prayers to God and the saints; sometimes from a book, sometimes from memory. They were to pray, not only at the opening and close of the school but at other times, as whenever the clock struck; and at the beginning of his written exercise, the pupil kneeling, addressed a petition to the Holy Spirit. He, who distinguished himself by the strict performance of these pious practices, was praised and rewarded, but he who neglected them was punished by being compelled to attend more masses, or repeat more prayers.

In order more effectually to accomplish the end and stimulate the scholars to outward acts of devotion, special means were resorted to. The pupils, who distinguished themselves by their piety, were received into the Congregation of the Blessed Virgin, a society which had its origin in the Collegium Romanum, but had extended itself widely in most Catholic countries. The rite of confession also played a most important part in promoting these external observances, since in this way it was easily ascertained who of the pupils neglected his religious duties. It deserves to be noted that the father-confessor of the pupils is not one of the teachers, or one having

any direct connection with the school, but a priest of the Order, specially commissioned to this duty. It need scarcely be said that the original abhorrence of the Society of Jesus against all heresy was implanted, so far as possible, in the hearts of their pupils, and it is a curious fact, and not a little suggestive, that while they were forbidden to attend public executions, there was an express exception with regard to the execution of heretics. That they almost universally became most zealous defenders of the Roman church and opponents of the Reformation, followed, of course.

As religion constituted a prominent part of education in the Jesuit schools, so also did morality. How far the accusations brought against the moral teachings of the Order by Pascal, and so often repeated since, are true, we can not here inquire. That they have had general credence is sufficiently shown by the current use of the term Jesuitical. That, however, they watched over the morals of their pupils with care, and trained them to virtuous habits, we see no good reason to doubt. But some of the principles adopted by them and applied in their schools seem justly open to exception. Among them is that of implicit obedience, an obedience which embraced not only the act, but the will; for as we have seen, every member of the Order was to be in the hands of his superior, as a corpse. He was to obey the commands given him without hesitation or reflection. Only when they manifestly involved sin could they refuse; *quæ cum peccato manifesto conjunctæ non sint*. In all other cases his obedience must be instantaneous and blind. The command was binding upon his conscience. This principle of the Order naturally ruled in the schools. The instructions of the teacher were in no case to be questioned, but received. What he said in explanation or interpretation of the lessons was not to be examined or reasoned upon, but to be remembered and repeated and believed. In this way all mental independence must soon cease, and the pupil, forbidden to exercise his own judgment, would become the mere passive recipient of the ideas of others. Men so trained might be excellent members of the Order, but could scarcely be expected to be pioneers in yet unexplored realms of thought, neither acute critics of old dogmas, nor propounders of new.

In its moral, as well as in its intellectual bearings, this principle of implicit obedience is fraught with danger. If it be true that the church of God, rightly constituted and guided by the Holy Spirit, is infallible, it by no means follows that the will of the individual members is to be held in abeyance, and that a blind, unquestioning obedience is to be paid to ecclesiastical rulers. All service rendered

to God should be reasonable, voluntary, and free, and while there is proper submission to authority, there should be at the same time no coercion of the conscience. We can not throw the responsibility of our moral acts upon others, and to do this destroys the sense of right and wrong, and disorders the whole spiritual nature. In so far, therefore, as the Jesuits taught their pupils that all disobedience, except when the command is flagrantly immoral, is mortal sin, they undermined that sense of individual responsibility which is essential to true manhood, and without which human actions have no moral character, and morality itself no real existence. To obey unquestioningly is an excellent rule for the soldier, since military evolutions rarely involve points of ethics, but not for the Christian warrior whose duty it is to have always a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men, and whose first question respecting every act must be, is it right?

But while we must protest against the principle of implicit obedience, and regard its application to education as highly injurious to the nobler forms of moral character, in the external discipline and government of the Jesuit schools we find no reason to believe that there was over much rigor and severity. Indeed, at their first institution they seem to have favorably contrasted with most of the schools of that period, in this respect. (There was comparatively little of corporal punishment, or of punishment of any kind, and complaints were sometimes made that the better class of pupils were allowed too great liberty. It was a rule that the teacher should get hold of the pupil rather by mildness and kindness than by sternness, and that youth is better led by the excitements of honor and by fear of shame, than by rough punishments. When it was necessary to inflict bodily chastisement, a "corrector" was appointed for this purpose, and care was taken that he should not be a member of the Order. A chief means of preserving good conduct at all times was the supervision to which every pupil was constantly exposed. At all hours and in every place a teacher, or some officer, was present, at study and at play, by day and by night, in the play-room and the sleeping-room, and upon all walks and excursions; and more than this; it was a rule that, so far as possible, a pupil should never be left alone. Two must go in company, both to school and to church, in their walks and amusements. To this, in itself, although an excess of caution, there is little to object; but it merits severest reprobation, if, as is charged, the purpose was to make each a spy upon the other, to note and report at the confessional, or to the superiors, every offense. Such a system was destructive, not merely of private

friendship, which indeed the society never favored, teaching that Christian love embraced all alike, but of all youthful sincerity and nobleness.

To manners and deportment special attention was paid; the pupils were taught to speak distinctly and elegantly, to write a clear and handsome hand, to walk with an erect and easy carriage, and to conform to all those external forms that distinguished the gentleman. To aid them in gaining ease and assurance of manner and readiness of address, much was made of dramatic representation; both tragedies and comedies were frequently acted, but all in Latin. At first the time of each representation was limited to one and a half hours, and much expense and display were forbidden, but later much more time was given them, and the preparations were often on a magnificent scale. The people who came were admitted gratuitously, and great crowds often assembled. The plays were not unfrequently written by one of the scholastics, taking as the groundwork a legend out of the history of the martyrs, or some event of contemporaneous history. Of course these reflected the ruling feeling of the day, and were sometimes both gross and fantastic.

Besides the acting of plays, most forms of amusement were encouraged, and such gymnastic exercises as tended to promote bodily strength and grace. The pupils were taught to ride, to dance, to row, to fence, and to divert themselves with all proper games. Almost every college had a spacious farm-house where they were taken upon holidays in the summer. Especial care was taken that the site of the school should be healthy, and the rooms airy. The food was wholesome and well prepared, and beyond the watchings and fastings required by the church, there was no undue asceticism. In short, to every thing that pertained to the physical and external prosperity of their schools, the Jesuits seem to have given much care, and to have been very successful.

Before attempting to estimate the comparative merits and demerits of the Jesuit schools from the data before us, let us consider the opinions that have been expressed respecting them by various eminent scholars. Among their commendators is that very able man and competent judge, Lord Francis Bacon. In his work "*De augment. Scient.*" he writes; "As to *pædagog*y, it may briefly be said, consult the schools of the Jesuits, for there is nothing better than these." Elsewhere, also, he expresses his approbation in strong terms, praising the practice of gathering the pupils in colleges, as giving a better field to dramatic representations, and awakening emulation, and

commending the short lessons, and the gradual progress from the easier to the harder branches of study.

Another distinguished philosopher, Descartes, gives the same commendation, which is the more valuable since he was himself educated at one of these schools.* One of the special advantages of which he speaks is, the mingling together and intercourse of so many youth taken from all parts of the land, supplying the place in a good degree of foreign travel; and the equality upon which all are placed.

One of the warmest encomiasts is Chateaubriand, who affirmed that in the suppression of the Society of Jesus, Europe had suffered an irreparable loss, and that education had never recovered from the blow it then sustained. He praises especially the skill with which the teachers knew how to bind the pupils to themselves, and declares that the Jesuits had brilliantly distinguished themselves in every department of knowledge, as chemists, botanists, mathematicians, mechanicians, astronomers, poets, historians, translators, archaeologists, and journalists.

In the praises of the French Catholics, many Protestant writers have joined, though not without some qualification. Macaulay observes: "No religious community could produce a list of men so variously distinguished. There was no region of the globe, no walk of speculation or of active life, in which Jesuits were not to be found. They guided the counsels of kings. They deciphered Latin inscriptions. They observed the motions of Jupiter's satellites. They published whole libraries, controversy, casuistry, history, treatises on optics, alcaic odes, editions of the fathers, madrigals, catechisms, and lampoons. The liberal education of youth passed almost entirely into their hands, and was conducted by them with conspicuous ability. They appear to have discovered the precise point to which intellectual culture can be carried without risk of intellectual emancipation. Enmity itself was compelled to own that in the art of managing and forming the tender mind, they had no equals. Meanwhile they assiduously and successfully cultivated the eloquence of the pulpit. With still greater assiduity and still greater success they applied themselves to the ministry of the confessional. Throughout Catholic Europe the secrets of every gov-

* According to Lewes; "Biographical History of Philosophy," Descartes, on leaving the college of La Fleche, "declared that he had derived no other benefit from his studies than that of a conviction of his utter ignorance, and a profound contempt for the systems of philosophy in vogue." Still it is beyond doubt that he highly valued the education he had received at La Fleche.

ernment, and of almost every family of note were in their keeping." To the darker shades in Macaulay's picture we need not advert.

Ranke in his "History of the Popes," speaking of their pedagogical success, thus explains it: "The Jesuits were more systematic than the earlier teachers. They divided the pupils into classes, and the instruction of all from highest to lowest was carried on in the same spirit. They took good care of their morals, and formed well educated people. One thing they had which especially distinguished them; it was method. Every thing was designed, every thing had its end."

In the same strain Hallam remarks in his "Literature of Europe." "It was one of the first great services which the Jesuits performed, to get possession of the universities, or to found other seminaries for education. In these they discarded the barbarous school-books then in use, put the rudimentary study of the languages on a better footing, devoted themselves, for the sake of religion, to those accomplishments which religion had hitherto disdained; and by giving a taste for elegant literature, with as much solid and scientific philosophy as the knowledge of the times and the prejudices of the church would allow, both wiped away the reproach of ignorance, and drew forth the native talents of their novices and scholars. They taught gratuitously, which threw, however unreasonably, a sort of discredit upon salaried professors; it was found that boys learned more from them in six months than in two years under other masters; and, probably for both these reasons, even Protestants sometimes withdrew their children from the ordinary gymnasia and placed them in Jesuit colleges. No one will deny that, in their classical knowledge, particularly of the Latin language, and in the elegance with which they wrote it, the order of the Jesuits might stand in competition with any scholars in Europe."

Of recent German writers both Stahl and Hahn speak of the many merits of these schools. Hahn says: "It is customary to represent the instruction as exceedingly superficial and defective, and as injurious to the intellect. I believe that in this we do the Jesuits injustice, at any rate so far as concerns their earlier history, when their schools were inferior to the universities in their variety of learning, but not inferior to them in method and result. The Jesuits took great care to make study agreeable to their pupils. This has caused their opponents to bring many charges against them, as if the knowledge thus gained was necessarily both partial and superficial. It is however to be remarked that the pedagogical efforts of that day are not to be judged of by the principles which only

within a few years have found currency. That the Jesuits with their more pleasing modes of instruction reached as high results as the universities with their drier and more scholastic methods, is satisfactorily shown by the lists of their scholars whose names hold honorable places upon the pages of French literature, and in political and ecclesiastical history. They count among them the famous warriors, Conde, Bouillon, Rohan, Luxembourg, Montmorency, Villars, Broglie; the prelates, Flechier, Bossuet, Fleury, Tericin; the lawyers, Lamignon, Argenson, Montesquieu; the philosophers and poets, Descartes, Corneille, Cubillon, Fontenelle, Moliere and Voltaire. Not all of these pupils have remained faithful to the principles of the Order that educated them, but the very enumeration shows both that the Jesuit schools had a wide sphere of action, and that they did not stupify and benumb the intellect."

To these friendly judgments of Protestant writers we may oppose the severe strictures of many Catholics, even of some educated in the Jesuit schools. The author of a recent treatise entitled, "The Gymnasia of Austria and the Jesuits," thus sums up the matter: "The method of Jesuit instruction appears upon impartial consideration, only as a melancholy proof of pedagogical error, and of rigid persistence in antiquated ways. The system as originally devised in the *ratio studiorum*, answers less and less to the necessities and demands of the times. We do not hesitate to say that if great and important provinces of the German empire have presented in our days the image of intellectual stagnation, we explain this fact by the defective character of Jesuit education. We do by no means assert that single members of this Order have not rendered important services to science. But this is not due to their method of education. We repeat, what was said in the last century, that if we compute the numbers of the Order from its institution to the year 1774, at 150,000, which is a very moderate estimate, one need not wonder that out of so many, some fifteen or twenty should be good Latin scholars. In general what the Jesuits have done for science is very small. In philosophy scarcely a single work can be named which has had any decided influence upon the progress of thought. Even in historical labors, in which they have won most praise, they have been greatly surpassed by the Benedictines of St. Maur. The deficiency in original investigation, which is so conspicuous in their schools, is manifest in all the after life of the pupils. There is often a poverty of thought in their writings which contrasts strangely with their industry in compilation. The numerous sources of information which we have examined respecting the educational labors of

the Jesuits, enable us confidently to affirm that their whole system is not only antiquated, but wrong in character, and has no internal vitality. Its continuance, whether upheld by authority or artifice, endangers both the church and the state, since it educates men who can not understand their age, and have learned nothing which enables them to meet its needs."

A much earlier writer (1625,) says: "Into no Order enters so many good minds, and none study more industriously. Nevertheless only few members of it become really learned men. It can show us no distinguished preacher, no great theologian, or humanist. That in Spain so great barbarism rules is especially to be ascribed to its educational system. If men knew to what these evils were owing, they would chase the Jesuits out of the schools."

It is apparent from this brief survey of opinions, that the educational system of the Jesuits has both its merits and defects, and that it can not be commanded or condemned in the gross. Here, as so often elsewhere, religious prejudices strongly influence our judgments. No Protestant can be expected to look with favor upon the schools of an Order whose vigorous efforts stayed the progress of the Reformation, and won back for the church of Rome large territories that the reformers had looked upon as permanently their own. Nor can it be forgotten that the Jesuits owed the success of their efforts in good measure to their zeal in educating the young. In their schools they molded the minds of the children, and reared up a generation that hated heresy with a double hatred, and honored the Pope with double honor. Looked upon as a chief means of making proselytes, and of training defenders of the Romish church, a Protestant would naturally see nothing in them to commend. On the other hand, the Catholic would find a system that produced such results, both admirable in its character and excellent in its details. Let us, as educators, try to lay aside the prejudices of both, and judge the system impartially both as to its principles, and its practical working.

There are two points of view from which we may examine the Jesuit school: first, as compared with the schools of their times; second, as tried by the established principles of education.

The schools existing when the Order of Jesus was founded, had many and palpable defects. The best of them were those of the Hieronymians,* "the scholarly fraternity," *fratres scholares*. But the range of studies was very narrow, Gerard the founder of the Fraternity, caring little for any learning that had not a directly religious character. "Spend no time" he said, "either on geometry, arithmetic,

*For an account of this Order see "Barnard's German Teachers and Educators," p. 65.

rhetoric, logic, grammar, poetry, or judicial astrology." Yet great importance was attached by him to the Latin tongue, and in the houses of the brethren was the Latin alone used. Still they were very zealous that the people should read the scriptures in their native tongue.

The repeated attempts made in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to revive the cloister-schools, had resulted in little, and they had fallen very low in public estimation; the spirit of the age was not favorable to monastic isolation. The religious impulses which the outbreak of the Reformation gave to all institutions, was not unfelt by these schools, but was not lasting. Indeed it was impossible that they could give such culture as should meet the wants of the time. Nor were these wants met by the town or city schools. Doubtless here and there were many excellent teachers, who were very useful, but the course of study was very meager, and poorly calculated to rouse into internal activity the youthful mind. Skill in verbal disputation was the end of education. The classics were studied not that they might be understood, but for the words and phrases they supplied, and therefore the orators and rhetoricians were studied, and the poets and historians neglected. Homer was little read, or Livy, or Tacitus, or Sallust. Luther referring to his early studies, says: "How often do I lament my own case, in that I read so few of the poets and historians when I was young, and that there was no one to direct me to them. But in this place I was compelled to flounder in all manner of vain philosophic and scholastic trash, true Serbonian bogs of the devil, and with much cost and care, and vast detriment besides, so that I have had enough to do ever since in undoing the harm they did me." In all schools a knowledge of the Latin was the Alpha and Omega. In this respect the system of Acquaviva had nothing peculiar. It was the scholastic feature of that day. In the famous school of the Lutheran, Sturm, at Strasbourg, where many thousand scholars were gathered of all ranks, including princes, of the nine years spent in the gymnasium, seven were given to the acquisition of Latin words, idioms, &c, and two to the acquisition of an elegant style; and the five subsequent collegiate years were spent in learning to speak and write with fluency and elegance. A certain mastery was thus gained over Latin words, but the language itself was not learned.

So far as regards the methods of study, the early Jesuit schools do not seem to have differed much from the best schools of the day. In both was the same careful cultivation of the memory by the practice of continual repetition; in both, instruction was confined to very

few branches, and thus made thorough; in both, mathematics were greatly neglected, and the students' native tongue. In one respect the Jesuit schools seem to have had the advantage; they resorted but little to corporeal punishment. Luther speaks of the schools of his day, as "being no longer hells and purgatories as they once were, where a boy learned nothing, absolutely nothing, by reason of ceaseless flogging, trembling, woe, and anguish." The Jesuit teacher made great use, as did Sturm, of the principles of emulation, and resorted only in extreme cases to bodily chastisement.

In general, comparing the schools of the Jesuits, soon after the establishment of the Order, with the schools of their day, we may say that if there was nothing distinctively new in their method of instruction, still they were ready to use all the information they could gain from any quarter, and were not bound to old ways. But the secret of their success and popularity was in the zeal and energy with which all the institutions of the new Order were inspired. In the hands of men burning with religious ardor, any system would have been, at least for the time, successful. The society had a specific work before it, and it addressed itself to the education of the young, to make them its own, to fill them with its ideas, with an earnestness and resolution without parallel in the history of teaching. Of course, in the lapse of time, this intensity of zeal passed away, and the schools were left, in good part, to stand or fall according to their intrinsic merits.

If we try these schools by those principles of education now generally recognized among us, we find both marked advantages and defects. 1. By limiting the studies to a few branches, what was learned was learned well. It was wrought into the mental being of the pupil, and made, so to speak, a part of him; and in this way the memory was greatly strengthened. 2. The scholars were not mentally overtasked; the terms of study were brief. 3. Much attention was given to physical culture, to bodily health, and to exercise and amusement. Perhaps an undue importance was attached to gentlemanly accomplishments, to a graceful carriage, and easy address. 4. The uniform working of the system, giving completeness to the training of the pupil. Nothing was left to the caprice of teachers, but he was led on, step by step, in a fixed order, till the course was mastered. Thus was there a unity in the process in itself favorable to mental discipline.

On the other hand we find some palpable defects. 1. The course of study was too narrow. It was chiefly confined to Latin and Greek. History, geography, mathematics, and the vernacular

tongue, were almost wholly omitted. How far this omission is now rectified, we can not say, but it is certain that the study of the two languages, especially of the Latin, continues to be the chief thing, to which all else is made subordinate. 2. The method of studying the Latin and Greek is defective. The great end is to get control of them as spoken languages, or at least the former, and to make it the vehicle of verbal communication. This, under certain circumstances, may be a desirable acquisition, but to most is not worth the cost. It may be done, and yet one not penetrate into the spirit of a language, or even be able to understand its authors. Many more things are necessary to make a classical scholar than mere knowledge of words. Besides, sufficient time was not given. The pupils finished, for the most part, their studies when sixteen years of age, before the judgment was sufficiently matured to appreciate the authors they had read. 3. The attention was too much directed to externals, to fluency and grace of speech, and an elegant style. Eloquence was placed in manner rather than in matter. The pupil was not taught to think profoundly, but to express himself handsomely. 4. To awaken diligence, the principle of emulation, was unduly appealed to. The pupils were converted into rivals, and made jealous and unsocial; eavesdropping and tale-bearing were its natural fruits. 5. As the object of the Order was to restore the past, and to resist all innovating tendencies in religion and theology, this feeling gave character to their educational system. It aimed to reproduce the old. In style, Cicero was the model; in theology, Thomas Aquinas. Hence the pupil was taught to imitate, to copy, to repeat. He was to receive what he was taught, not to think any thing new. Hence it is that of the distinguished members of the Order of Jesus, few have been prominent in any department of knowledge where investigation is demanded. The training of the school does not prepare them for original inquiry. 6. The final end of all school instruction was to make the pupil a faithful son of the Church. Its whole bearing is ecclesiastical. It is assumed that the church is in possession of the truth, and that it is infallible, and that it is the duty of all her children not to investigate or question, but to believe and obey. In upholding unity, individuality is destroyed. The Christian is swallowed up in the church, the man in the order, the boy in the school. Through the confessional, the superior becomes possessed of the inmost secrets of the scholar's heart. Hence there results an obliteration of what is peculiar, or distinctive in character; all appear stamped with a common stamp;

obedience has in it a tinge of servility; and the young student is changed into an unquestioning zealot.

Such in few words are the advantages and disadvantages of the Jesuit schools regarded simply from an educational point of view. As ecclesiastical missions of the church, each one will approve or condemn, according to his religious opinions. From this point of view it is not our place to consider them.

NOTE

In the preparation of the foregoing article, use has been made of the *Ratio atque Institutio Studiorum Societatis Jesu*. Paris. 1850. Of the articles, "*Jesuiten*," and "*Jesuitenschulen*," in Schmidt's "*Encyklopadie*," "*Jesuitenorden*," in Herzog's "*Real Encyklopadie*," and "*Jesuiten*" in the "*Kirchen Lexicon*" of Wetzer and Welte. Some use has been made of Ravignan "*De L Institut des Jesuits*," of Ranke's "*History of the Popes*," and of Maynard "*On the Studies and Teaching of the Jesuits*." The writer's aim is historical not controversial.

V. NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA.

AT TORONTO.

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE earliest presentation of the necessity of special provision for the training of teachers in a public system of elementary schools in this Province, was made by Dr. Charles Duncombe, in a "Report to the Parliament of Upper Canada, in February, 1836," as chairman of a Commission appointed in the House of Assembly in 1835. In this report, he urges, that "schools for the education of teachers should be immediately established and supported out of a fund to be permanently appropriated for this purpose." In a bill for a public act, appended to the Report, provision is made "for the support of four schools for the education and qualification of teachers—three for males, and one for females." The bill provides for an experimental garden attached, to one or more district schools in each town, for the use of the teacher, and the profit and instruction of the pupils. To strengthen the conclusions of the Report, and the provisions of the bill, the author appends in full, "the Report of a Committee of the Regents of the University of New York on the Education of Common School Teachers," drawn up by John A. Dix, in 1835, then Superintendent of Schools; also extracts from a Report of Alexander A. Everett, as Chairman of the Committee on Education in the House of Representatives in Massachusetts, on the same subject, to which was appended a communication by Dr. Julius, of Prussia, on the Teachers' Seminaries of that country. The Report with its voluminous Appendix was widely circulated, but no immediate legislative action followed on account of the political agitations of the province.

In 1840, a committee consisting of Rev. Dr. McCaul, Rev. H. J. Grasett, and S. B. Harrison, appointed by Sir George Arthur, Lieutenant Governor, to inquire into the state and improvement of education, recommended the establishment of Normal and Model Schools, as well as of School Libraries.

In 1841, a system of common schools was adopted by the Parliament of United Canada, with an annual grant of £200,000 for its support, in which permission was given for the establishment of Normal, and county and city Model Schools; and the Deputy Superintendent for Canada West in 1843, in his report to the Chief Superintendent, remarks that "Normal Schools are eagerly sought after to qualify teachers for their arduous and important duties."

In December, 1843, a separate school Act passed for Upper Canada, in

which the contingency of a Normal School was provided for. This Act was superseded by another in 1844, under which the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D. D., was appointed Superintendent, who in 1846, submitted a "Report on a System of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada,"—which is the foundation of the excellent system now in operation. In this report, Dr. Ryerson remarks: "There can not be good schools without good teachers; nor can there be, as a general rule, good teachers, any more than good mechanics, or lawyers, or physicians, unless persons are trained for the profession. It is now universally admitted that Seminaries for the training of teachers are absolutely necessary for an efficient system of public instruction—nay, as an integral part, as the vital principle of it." These positions are fortified by the opinions and arguments of Guizot, Cousin, Bache, Stowe, and Mann, and the experience of France, Prussia, Holland, and several of the United States.

After ten years of agitation, the public mind was now ripe for liberal action, and in June, 1846, the annual sum of £1,500 was granted in support of a Normal School.

II. THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR UPPER CANADA.

The Normal School for Upper Canada, was opened in the Government House, Toronto, on the 1st of November, 1847—under an appropriation, by the Legislature of \$6,000 for furnishing suitable buildings, and an annual grant of an equal amount for the support of the school. The school having proved entirely successful and outgrown its accommodation, the Legislature in 1850 and 1852 appropriated \$100,000 for new and enlarged premises and suitable equipments, with an annual grant of \$10,000 for its expenses.

The institution consists of a normal school and two model schools (one each for boys and girls;) the normal school is the school of instruction by lecture,—the model school the school of instruction by practice. The one hundred and fifty students in the former are teachers-in-training, whose ages vary from sixteen or eighteen to thirty, while the hundred and fifty pupils in each of the latter are children between the ages of five and sixteen years. In the normal school, the teachers-in-training are instructed in the principles of education and the best methods of communicating knowledge to the youth placed under their care—are "taught how to teach;" in the model schools they are taught to give practical effect to those instructions by teachers previously trained in the normal school, and under the direction of the head master. The model schools are designed, both by the system of instruction pursued and general arrangement, to be the *model* for all the public schools in Upper Canada.

The principal general regulations for admission of the students to the normal school are as follows:—

I. No male student shall be admitted under eighteen years of age, or a female student under the age of sixteen years. 1. Those admitted must produce a certificate of good moral character, dated within at least

three months of its presentation, and signed by the clergyman or minister of the religious persuasion with which they are connected. 2. They must be able, for entrance into the junior division, to read with ease and fluency; parse a common prose sentence according to any recognized authority; write legibly, readily, and correctly; give the definitions of geography; have a general knowledge of the relative position of the principal countries with their capitals, the oceans, seas, rivers, and islands of the world; be acquainted with the fundamental rules of arithmetic, common or vulgar fractions, and simple proportion. They must sign a declaration of their intention to devote themselves to the profession of school-teaching, and state that their object in coming to the normal school is to qualify themselves better for the important duties of that profession.

II. Upon these conditions, candidates for school-teaching will be admitted to the advantages of the institution without any charge, either for tuition, the use of the library, or for the books which they may be required to use in the school.

III. Teachers-in-training must board and lodge in the city, in such houses and under such regulations as are approved of by the council of public instruction.

IV. A sum at the rate of one dollar per week (payable at the end of the session,) will be allowed to each teacher-in-training who, at the end of the *first or second session*, shall be entitled to either a first or second class provincial certificate; but no teacher-in-training shall be entitled to receive aid for a period exceeding one session, and no resident of Toronto shall be entitled to receive aid.

V. The continuance in the school of the teachers-in-training is conditional upon their diligence, progress, and observance of the general regulations prescribed. Each session to be concluded by an examination conducted by means of written questions and answers.

Course of Instruction for Second Class Certificate in Junior Division.

ENGLISH.—Read prose with correct emphasis, intelligence, and inflection of voice.

Rules of Spelling (spelling-book superseded.)

General principles of the philosophy of Grammar.

Analyze and parse any prose sentence.

Principal Greek and Latin Roots, Prefixes and Affixes.

Prose Composition on any simple subject, with correct punctuation, &c.

WRITING.—To write a bold rapid running hand.

GEOGRAPHY.—The relative positions of all the countries of the world, with their principal cities and physical features; the Islands; Hodgins' Geography of Canada; Mathematical and Physical Geography, as taught in Sullivan's "Geography Generalized."

HISTORY.—General History of the World, from the Creation to the present time, as sketched in fifth book of lessons.

Chronological Chart.

ART OF TEACHING.—The general principles of the science of Education—General plan of School organization—Practice of teaching as exemplified in Junior divisions of the Model School.

MUSIC.—Hullah's System.

BOOK-KEEPING.—The Rudiments.

ARITHMETIC AND MENSURATION.—Notation, Numeration, Fundamental Rules in different scales of Notation, Greatest Common Measure, Least Common Multiple, Prime Numbers, Fractions (Vulgar and Decimal,) Proportion (Simple and Compound,) Practice, Percentage (including Simple Interest, Insurance, Brokerage, &c.) Square and Cube Roots, Mensuration of Surfaces, and Mental Arithmetic.

ALGEBRA.—Definitions, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division.

Use of Brackets, Decomposition of Trinomials, Resolution into Factors, Involution, Square of Multinomials, Expansion of $(a + b)^n$, Evolution, Greatest Common Measure, Least Common Multiple, Fractions, Interpretation of Symbols

$$\begin{array}{c} .0, \pi, \\ 0 \frac{0}{0} \infty, \text{ and } = \text{Simple Equations.} \end{array}$$

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—Properties of Matter, Statics, Hydrostatics, Dynamics, and Hydrodynamics, Human Philosophy.

Course of Instruction for Ordinary First Class Certificate in Senior Division.

ENGLISH.—Read Poetry and Oratorical Addresses with fluency and expression—Principles of Reading—Science of Language—General Grammar—Analysis and Parsing of Sentences in Prose and Verse—Changes of construction.

Structure of Propositions and Sentences.

Etymology—Changes effected in Roots.

Correct letter-writing, as regards Composition and mechanical arrangement.

Composition on any given subject.

History of the Origin and Literature of the English Language.

GEOGRAPHY.—Use of the Globes—(Keith)—Geography of England, Ireland, Scotland, and the United States—British Colonies (Hodgins) Rudiments of Physical Geography—(Somerville)—Structure of the Crust of the Earth.

HISTORY.—Histories of England and Canada.

Philosophy of History.

ART OF TEACHING.—The science of Education applied to the Teaching of Common Schools—Methods of teaching the different branches—Practice thereof with Senior division, Model School—Organization of Central Schools—Dimensions and structure of School-houses—Furniture and Apparatus.

MUSIC.—Hullah's System.

DRAWING.—Facility in making perspective outline sketches of common objects.

BOOK-KEEPING.—Single and Double Entry.

ARITHMETIC AND MENSURATION.—Review past subjects of Junior Division—Discount, Fellowship, Barter, Equation of Payments, Profit and Loss, Alligation, Compound Interest, Annuities, Position, Progression, Logarithms and Applications, Intellectual Arithmetic, Mensuration of Surfaces and Solids.

ALGEBRA.—Review past subjects of Junior Division, Indices, Surds, Quadratic Equations, Indeterminate Equations, Arithmetical, Geometrical and Harmonical Progression, Ratio, Proportion, Variation, Permutations, Combinations, Binomial Theorem, Notation, Decimals, Interest, &c., Properties of Numbers, Continued Fractions, Exponential Theorem, Logarithms, Algebraic Series, Cubic and Biquadratic Equations.

EUCLID.—Books III, IV, VI and Definitions of Book V., Exercises on Six Books (Potts.)

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—Heat, Light, Electricity, Galvanism, Magnetism, Optics and Acoustics, Vegetable Physiology, General View of Geology.

CHEMISTRY.—Constitution of Matter, Chemical Nomenclature, Symbols, Laws of Combination, Chemical Affinity, Crystallization, Oxygen, Hydrogen, Nitrogen, Carbon, Sulphur Phosphorus, Chlorine, Calcium, Aluminum, Silicon, Potassium, Sodium, Iodine, Manganese, Magnesium, Iron, Lead, Fluorine and their principal compounds, Nature of Soils, of Organic Bodies, Germination of the Seed, Development of the Plant, Source of Carbon, Hydrogen and Nitrogen, &c., in Plants, Products of Vegetable growth, Woody Fibre, Gum Starch, Sugar, Gluten, &c., Cultivation of Plants, Composition and Formations of Soils, Mineral Constituents of Plants, Action of Manures, &c.

Additional Qualifications for honor First Class Provincial Certificate.

I. Each candidate to have held an ordinary First Class Certificate for one year.

II. To give evidence of having been a successful teacher.

III. To stand an examination in the following subjects, in addition to those necessary for an ordinary First Class Certificate, viz:—

1. English History and Literature.
2. Canadian History and Geography.
3. Outlines of Ancient and Modern History and Geography.
4. Latin Grammar; and Books IV, V, and VI, of Caesar's Commentaries.
5. Outlines of Geography and Astronomy.
6. Science of Teaching, School Organization, Management, &c.
7. Logic, and Mental and Moral Philosophy (Whately and Stewart.)
8. Algebra—General Theory of Equations, Imaginary Quantities.
9. Euclid—Books XI and XII.
10. Trigonometry, as far as Solution of Plane Triangles (Colenso.)
11. Inorganic Chemistry (Gregory's Hand-Book.)
12. The principles of Book-Keeping, Music, and Drawing.

III. SUPERANNUATED OR WORN OUT TEACHERS' FUND.

The Legislature in 1854, established a Fund in aid of superannuated and worn out Common School Teachers, by appropriating £4,000 a year for this purpose.

Regulations adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, April 28, 1854.

Every teacher engaged in teaching since 1854, in order to be entitled, when he shall have become superannuated, to share in this fund, must contribute towards it at the rate of five dollars per annum, commencing with 1854, and at the rate of four dollars per annum for the current year; and no teacher now engaged in teaching shall be entitled to share in this fund who shall not thus contribute to it annually. But the amount of the annual subscriptions for the years during which such teacher may have taught before the first day of January, 1854, and for which he may hereafter claim as a superannuated teacher, may be deducted from the first year's pension to which such teacher may be entitled.

2. Should any teacher, having a wife and children, subscribe to this fund, and die without deriving any benefit from it, the amount of his subscriptions, and whatever may accumulate thereon, shall be paid to his widow or children, as soon as satisfactory proofs of his decease, and the relationship of the claimant or claimants to him, shall have been adduced.

3. No teacher shall be eligible to receive a pension from this fund who shall not have been disabled from further service while teaching a Common School, or who shall not have been worn out in the work of a Common School Teacher.

4. All applications, according to the prescribed form, accompanied by the requisite certificates and proofs, must be made before the first of April, in order to entitle the applicants to share in the fund for such year.

5. In case the fund shall at any time not be sufficient to pay the several claimants the highest sum permitted by law, the fund shall be equitably divided among the several claimants, according to their respective periods of service.

6. The amounts of all subscriptions to this fund, and of any unexpended balances of Legislative Grants made to it, may be invested, from time to time, under the direction of this Council; and the interest accruing thereon shall be expended in aid of Superannuated Teachers of Common Schools in Upper Canada, according to these regulations. All annual subscriptions to this fund must be made before the end of the year for which they are intended; and all—

7. Communications and Subscriptions in connection with this fund, must be made to the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada. (Subscriptions to be sent in as early in the year as possible.)

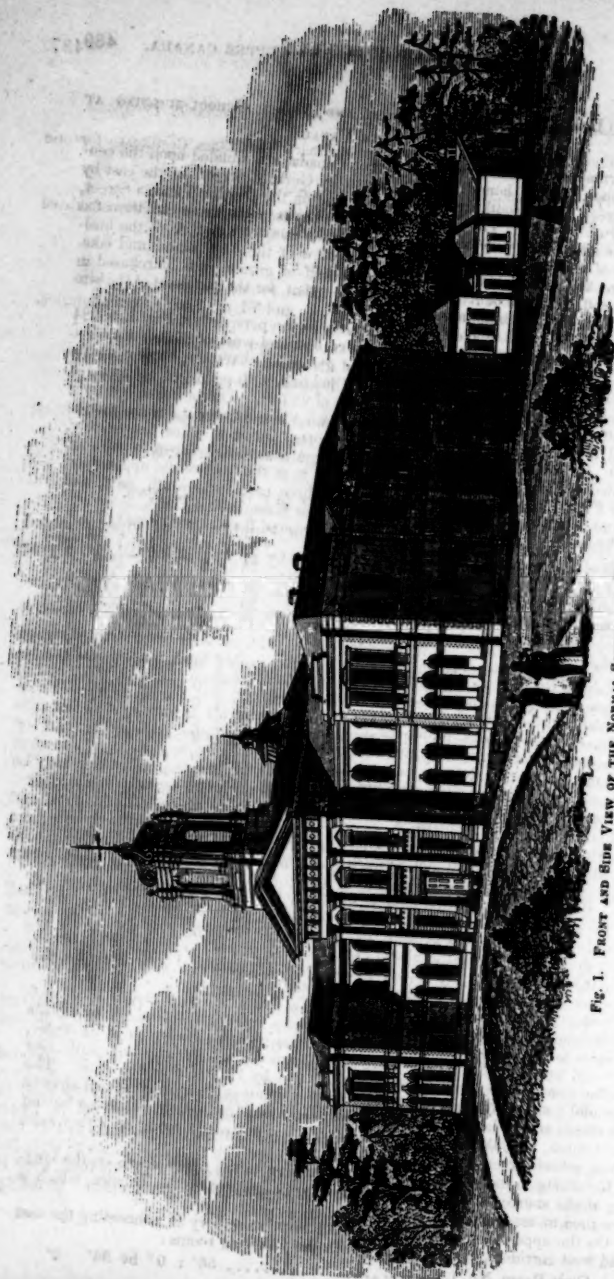


FIG. 1. FRONT AND SIDE VIEW OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL AND EDUCATION OFFICES FOR UPPER CANADA.

**PLAN AND DESCRIPTION OF THE NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOL-BUILDING AT
TORONTO, UPPER CANADA.**

The Normal and Model Schools for Upper Canada, are situated upon the center of an open square, bounded on the north by Gerard Street, on the east by Church Street, on the south by Gould Street, and on the west by Victoria Street, in the city of Toronto. The distance from the bay is about three quarters of a mile. The situation is very beautiful, being considerably elevated above the business parts of the city, and commanding a fine view of the bay, island, and lake. The square, which contains seven acres and a-half of ground, was purchased in August, 1850. The amount of the legislative grant for the purchase of the site and the erection of the buildings, was £15,000.

The principal normal school building, as seen in the perspective, Fig. 1, is 184 feet 4 inches frontage, by a depth on the flanks, east and west, of 85 feet 4 inches.

The front is in the Roman Doric order of Palladian character, having for its center, four pilasters of the full height of the building, with pediment, surrounded by an open doric cupola, of the extreme height of 95 feet. The principal entrance (to the officers of the educational department, &c.,) is in this front; those for the male and female students being placed on the east and west sides respectively, C and D. In the center of the building is a large central hall, (open to the roof, and lighted by a lantern) with a gallery around it, at the level of the upper floor, at B, in Fig. 3, approached on each floor by three corridors—south, east, and west—and opening on the north to the Theatre or Examination Hall.

On the east side, the accommodation on the ground floor is as follows:

School of Art and Design, No. 1.....	36' : 0"	by	28' : 0"
School of Art and Design, No. 2.....	36 : 5	"	28 : 0
Male Students' Retiring Room.....	36 : 0	"	30 : 0
Council Room,	39 : 0	"	22 : 0
Male Students' Staircase A,	17 : 6	"	11 : 0

On the west side:

Waiting Room.....	22' : 8"	by	14' : 8"
Ante-Room,	22 : 0	"	14 : 3
Chief-Superintendent's Room.....	28 : 0	"	21 : 0
Depository for Books, Maps, &c.,.....	28 : 0	"	21 : 0
Depository for Apparatus, &c.,.....	22 : 8	"	14 : 8
Female Students' Retiring Room.....	36 : 0	"	26 : 10
Recording Clerk's Office, with fire proof vault,	37 : 11	"	22 : 0
Second Clerk's Office,	22 : 0	"	14 : 3
Female Students' Staircase A,	17 : 6	"	11 : 0

North of the Central Hall is the Theatre, with Lecturer's entrance in the center, and side entrances east and west, *d, d*, for male and female students respectively. Here the aisles are marked *a, b*, and *c*, with seats arranged between them: the Lecturer's platform being placed between *B* and *e*. This portion of the Theatre will accommodate 470 persons, and including the galleries, 620. Around the Theatre, and beneath its gallery, are east and west corridors, by which the students reach the Model School.

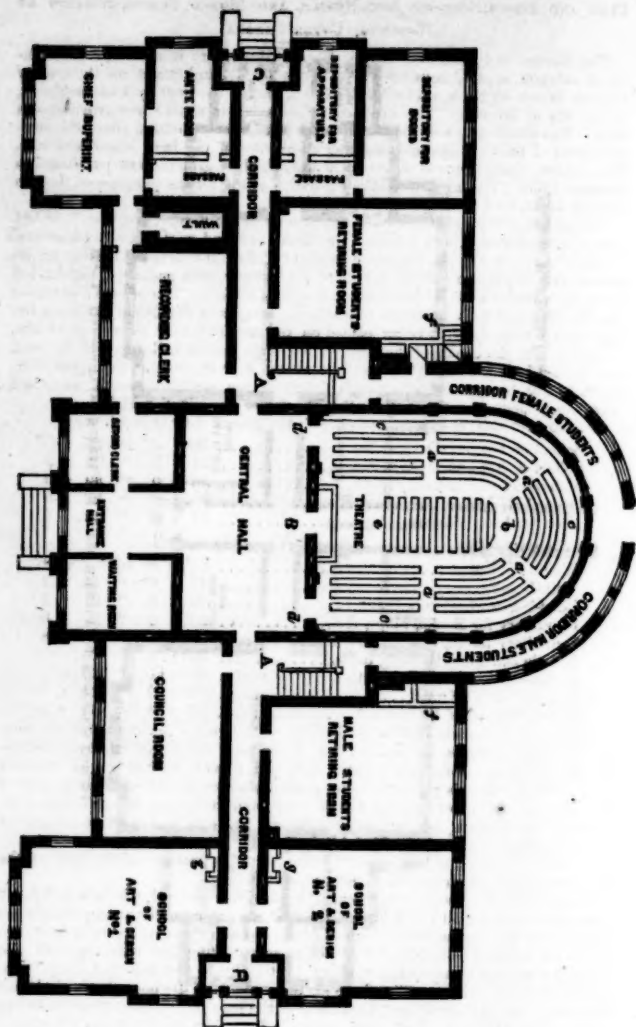
By this arrangement, except when actually in the presence of the masters, the male and female students are entirely separated.

Passing (by the corridors last named) to the Model School, which is 175 feet 6 inches frontage, by 59 feet 6 inches, the students enter the boys and girls' schools by doors to the east and west, each of which has a large school-room at its center, 56 feet 6 inches by 33 feet, capable of accommodating 300 children, with four smaller class-rooms adjoining it, about 17 feet by 15 feet 6 inches each. The boys and girls' entrances (like those for the students of the normal school already described) are at the east and west ends of the building—such entrances having each a hat and cloak room and master's (or mistress') room on either side. These schools accommodate 600 children.

Returning to the Normal School, and passing to the upper floor: on the landing of the staircases A, A, are entrances to the gallery of the Theatre, which is designed to accommodate 150 persons.

On the upper floor is the Central Hall, with its gallery B, connecting the east and west corridors, communicating with the following rooms:

Class Room, No. 1.....	56' : 0"	by	36' : 0"
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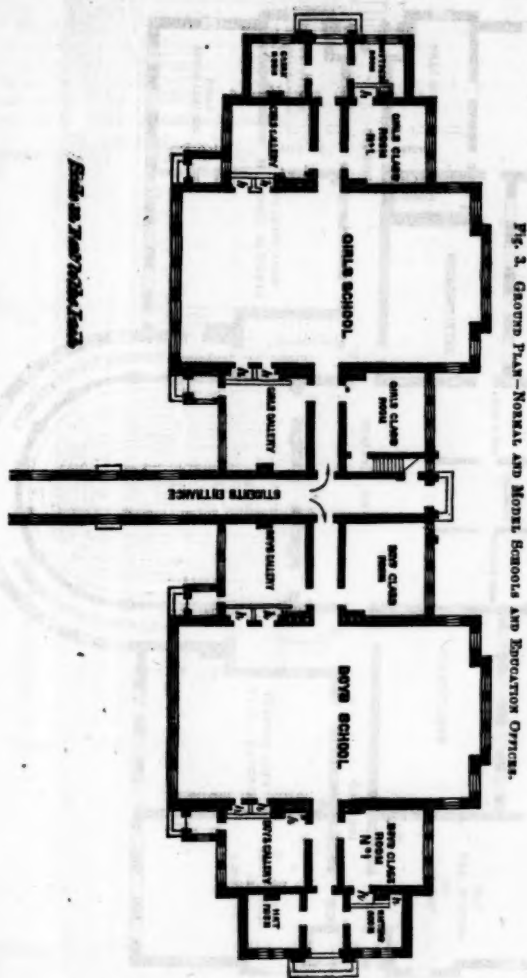




FIG. 2 REAR AND SIDE VIEW OF NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS AT TORONTO.

Class Room, No. 2.....	56 : 0	by	36 : 0
Class Room, No. 3.....	45 : 2	"	28 : 0
Class Room, No. 4.....	32 : 8	"	28 : 0
1st. Master's Room,	22 : 0	"	19 : 5½
2nd. Master's Room,	22 : 0	"	19 : 5½
Museum,	42 : 0	"	22 : 0
Library,	30 : 5	"	22 : 0
Laboratory,	21 : 6	"	12 : 0

In addition to the accommodation thus enumerated, there are, in the basement, rooms for the residence of the Janitor, together with furnace rooms, from whence warm air is conducted to the whole building.

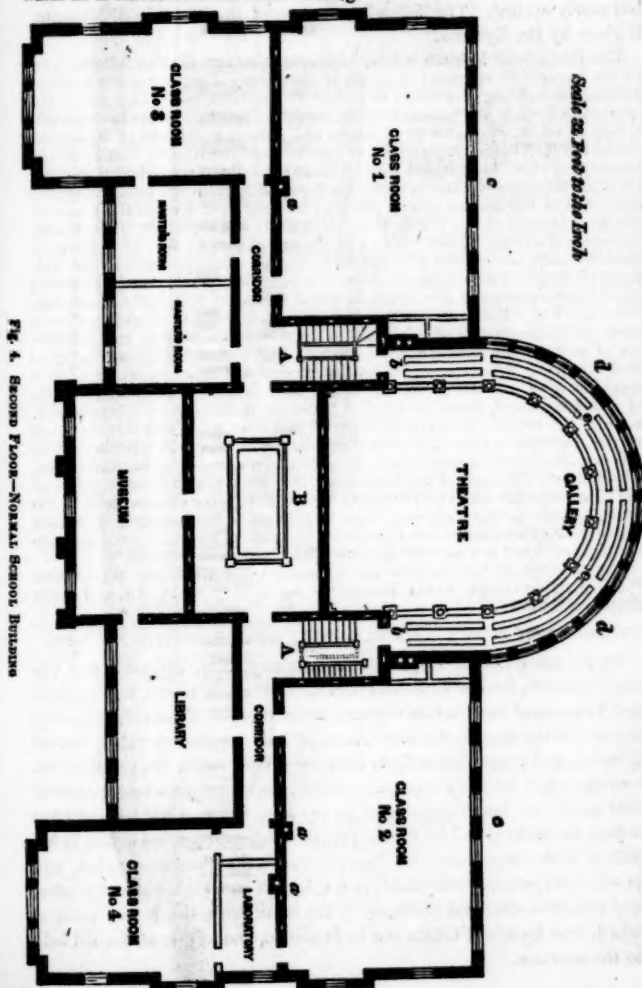


Fig. 4. SECOND FLOOR—NORMAL SCHOOL BUILDING

IV. EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.

On the establishment, in 1857, of an educational museum and a model grammar school, it was found necessary to provide further accommodation, and to remove the normal school to another part of the premises. With this view a large additional building was erected, at a cost including fittings, of about \$35,000, in rear of the main structure, having a handsome front facing on Gerrard Street. To this building was transferred, in 1858, the normal school—the model grammar school being then but newly opened. The following account of the Educational Museum, is given by Dr. Ryerson.

This Educational Museum is founded after the example of what is being done by the Imperial Government as a part of the system of popular education—regarding the indirect, as scarcely secondary to the direct, means of training the minds and forming the taste and character of the people. It consists of a collection of school apparatus for Common and Grammar Schools, of Models of Agricultural and other implements, of specimens of the Natural History of the Country, Casts of Antique and Modern Statues and Busts, &c., selected from the principal Museums of Europe, including busts of some of the most celebrated characters in English and French History; also copies of some of the works of the great Masters of the Dutch, Flemish, Spanish, and especially of the Italian Schools of Painting. These objects of art are *labeled*, for the information of those who are not familiar with the originals, and a descriptive historical catalogue of them can be purchased at the Museum. In the evidence given before the Select Committee of the British House of Commons, it is justly stated that, “the object of a National Gallery is to improve the public taste, and to afford a more refined description of enjoyment to the mass of the people,” and the opinion is at the same time strongly expressed, that as “people of taste going to Italy constantly bring home beautiful modern copies of beautiful originals,” it is desirable, even in England, that those who have not the opportunity or means of traveling abroad, should be enabled to see, in the form of an accurate copy, some of the celebrated works of Raffaele, and other great masters; an object no less desirable in Canada, than in England. What has been thus far done in this branch of public instruction, is in part the result of a small annual sum, which, by the liberality of the Legislature, has been placed at the disposal of the Chief Superintendent of Education, out of the Upper Canada share of the School Grants, for the purpose of improving school architecture and appliances, and to promote arts, science, and literature, by means of models, objects, and publications, collected in a museum in connection with this department.

The contents of the Museum are arranged under the heads of Sculpture, Paintings, Engravings, Works Illustrating the History of Art, &c., and Other Objects of Interest.

V. DEPOSITORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARY BOOKS, APPARATUS AND MAPS.

By the same Law of Upper Canada, County, City, Township and Village Councils, Boards of School Trustees in cities, towns, and villages, and Trustees of rural school Sections are authorized to provide means by tax, or otherwise, for the establishment and support of public school libraries, and supplying schools with apparatus, maps, &c.; and to encourage action by the above corporations, the Superintendent is authorized to add one hundred per cent. to any sum, or sums, not less than five dollars transmitted to him for the purchase. To aid persons acting in behalf of these corporations, the Superintendent is authorized to select, and procure, at the lowest wholesale price, a stock of suitable books and articles, and publish a classified catalogue of the same, with the lowest price at which each book and article can be furnished, and to give all desired help in the selection.

VI. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

HISTORY. TERRITORY. POPULATION.

To understand the educational history of Holland and Belgium, it will be necessary to keep in mind the leading facts in the political history of that portion of Europe. Its original inhabitants, the Belgae, the Batavi, and the Frisii, figure in the conquests of the Roman armies under Julius Cæsar, and in the spread of Christianity under Anglo-Saxon bishops. In the sixth century they were subjugated by the Franks; and in the middle of the ninth, incorporated into the empire of Charlemagne; and soon after parceled out into duchies, marquisates, counties, and lordships. In the fourteenth century, (1406,) the estates of the Count of Flanders, which had absorbed the chief authority of Brabant, and other duchies, passed to the house of Burgundy, and in 1477 were united with Austria, and a few years later, became part of the dominions of Emperor Charles V. In 1600, seven of the states, or principalities, viz., Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overijssel, Gröningen, and Friesland, formed a federal republic, with William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, as Stadtholder. In 1714, the province of Belgium was ceded to Austria, which maintained its possession till 1796, when the country was overrun by the armies of the French republic, and made part of France. In 1795, the republic of the Seven Provinces was conquered by France, and constituted into the Batavian republic; which in 1810 was incorporated into the French empire, and in 1814 came under the authority of the Prince of Orange, who in 1816 was recognized as king of the Netherlands, including Belgium and Holland. In 1830, Belgium revolted, and was recognized by the principal powers of Europe as a distinct kingdom, and Holland, or the kingdom of the Netherlands, was reduced to nearly the original limits of the seven united provinces of the sixteenth century, including Limburg, and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

The kingdom of Holland, including the Duchy of Luxemburg, has an extent of 150 miles, from north to south; and of 125 miles from east to west, or an area of 13,643 square miles. The population in 1853, was 3,962,290, of which, (excluding Luxemburg,)

1,832,638 were Protestants; 1,164,142 were Catholics; 58,578 Israelites; and 1,369 unnamed. The Protestants are divided into Lutherans, Calvinists, and Anabaptists, (*Mennonites*.) All sects have equal privileges under the law.

Many of the peculiarities of the schools, both elementary and superior, can be traced to the political and religious views of the different provinces.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION.

Christianity was introduced into Friesland at the time of its conquest by the Franks, its first bishop being Willebrord, the Anglo-Saxon, who landed on the coast of the Netherlands, about A. D., 690. Tradition reports that a school had already been founded at Utrecht, by some zealous missionary, in the time of Charles Martel, at which his son Pepin received his education. However this may have been, the renown of the Utrecht School of St. Martin is of very ancient date, and what York has been in England, Fulda in Germany, Tours in France, and Liege in Belgium, such a relation may this city be said to have held to Northern Netherlands. Here the influence of Winifred, (St. Boniface,) the Apostle of Germany, had been most strongly felt, and under bishop Gregory, one of his pupils, great numbers of youth from the neighboring countries were here gathered together for instruction, "some of them even from among the Baguarii, and Suevi." Ludger, first bishop of Münster, a friend of Alcuin, and pupil of Gregory, was deservedly styled by the Benedictines, "the light of Friesland, and of all the lands about." During the invasion by the Normans, this school at Utrecht was suppressed, but was reestablished in 917, and regained its former renown. The emperor, Henry the Fowler, placed here his three sons, Otto, Henry, and Bruno, to be educated, of whom the last became afterward archbishop of Cologne and archduke of Lottringen, and was noted for his extraordinary learning and friendship for the poet Prudentius. At the beginning of the twelfth century, Utrecht possessed no less than five flourishing schools, several of which had each a "rector" in addition to the priests who had the general control. At about the same time, several convents became distinguished as educational institutions, especially those at Egmond, Nymwegen, Middleburg, in Zealand, and Aduwert, near Gröningen.

In Holland, as in Belgium, in addition to the schools that were attached to the cathedrals, convents, and chapters, there were established in the course of the twelfth century, by the more wealthy communities, public schools especially designed for the instruction of the citizens and laity. It is also worthy of notice that the au-

thority to open such schools was always derived from the counts—by whom it was conferred, sometimes upon the cities as an especial privilege, and sometimes upon merely private persons as a mark of particular favor. The jurisdiction of the feudal lords was the same here as in Belgium; but while in the latter country, with the exception perhaps of the elementary schools in some of the cities, the right of supervision everywhere devolved upon the chapters, instruction in these public schools of Holland was wholly withdrawn from the clergy, and they were made essentially secular in their character. The privilege of thus establishing schools was conferred upon some of the cities at the following dates; Dort, by Count Floris V., A. D., 1290; the Hague, 1322—Leyden, 1324—and Rotterdam, in 1328, by William III.; Delft and Amsterdam, in 1334, by William IV.; Leyden again, 1357—Haarlem, 1369—Alkmar, 1398—Hoorn, 1358 and 1390—the Hague, 1393—Schiedam and Ondewater, 1394—and Rotterdam, in 1402, by Albert of Bavaria.

These schools, adds Stallaert, on the authority of Buddingh, were generally styled "School en Schryfambacht," "Schoole en Kostern," (school and writing offices, schools and clerks' houses,) and the "Schoolmijsters" (schoolmasters) were looked upon as professional men or craftsmen—as was the case also in Belgium, where they formed distinct guilds and fraternities. These public schools of Holland were divided into "large" and "small" schools, (*grooten en bij-schoolen*), Latin being taught in the first division. The institution at Zwolle, attained special notoriety in the fourteenth century, under the direction of the celebrated Johan Cele. According to Thomas à Kempis and Ten Busche, its pupils numbered about a thousand, gathered from Holland, Belgium, and the principal provinces of Germany.

The advancement of learning in the Netherlands was largely promoted by "The Brethren of the Common Life," whose first school was established by Gerhard de Groote, (Gerhard the Great,) of Deventer. The spirit of mysticism that was at first prevalent among them, gradually gave place to a zeal for literary pursuits; and the Hieronymians especially, like the Italians at the time of the revival of letters, became devotees to the classics. It may however be affirmed that Erasmus never had occasion to charge them with "paganism," as he did the scholars of southern Europe. Though they contended against the divinity of the schools, it was because, (as Karl von Raumer says,) it seemed to them to be of no value, and even detrimental to profound sanctity and the soul's

happiness. Still, the writings of Cicero and of Virgil, had a charm even for them, and notwithstanding their asceticism—such as we see mirrored in à Kempis' "*de Imitatione Christi*"—they labored effectively to advance popular education. It is not to be forgotten that one of the brethren, Gerhard of Zutphen, was unceasingly active in extending the circulation and use of the Scriptures in the Dutch language—a fact of no little significance, if we consider that they were then on the eve of the reformation.

In order to appreciate the revolution that was wrought in the minds of the people when the principles of the Reformation gained a fast foothold in the northern provinces of the Netherlands, it would be necessary to give a history of the university of Leyden, (founded in 1575,) the bulwark of Protestant doctrine in Holland. But as we must hasten to the consideration of more recent times, we can only refer the reader to a highly instructive work published at Leyden, in 1830,—"*Geschiedenis der Leidsche Hoogeschool van hare oprigting in den Jaar 1575, tot het Jaar 1825*," (History of the Leyden High School, from its foundation in 1575 to 1825.) It is sufficient to remark that the freedom of thought that was first shown in theological controversy, gradually awakened a new zeal for the studies auxiliary thereto, and in the end contributed greatly to the emancipation of all departments of learning. After the founding of the university at Leyden, others were established successively at Franeker, in 1585, at Gröningen, in 1614, at Utrecht, in 1638, and at Harderwick, in 1648. During all this period, and until the Spanish war of succession, Holland was the refuge from every side, for those who were subjected to persecution for religion's sake, among and accompanying whom were philosophers and scholars of the first rank.

But the natives of Holland were not content to remain inferior to their illustrious guests, and the century that then produced a Descartes and Huyghens, can certainly claim an honorable place in the records of man's intellectual development. This was also the most brilliant period in the history of the universities. Leyden is proud of such men as Doussa, Vossius, Heinsius, Raphelengius, Meursius, Grænovius, Perigonius, and Schultens; of 'S Gravesande, the philosopher; of the theologians, Gomar and Arminius; and of the great physician whose letters could be addressed, "to Boërhaave, Europe." Utrecht, the birthplace of the learned Pope Hadrian IV., can boast of a Gisbert Voet, a Grævius, a Reland, and others. Rotterdam, where Erasmus was born, was the residence of Peter Bayle. Spinoza was from Amsterdam. The Hague possessed a Huyghens,

Basnage, and Saurin, the Bossuet of the Calvinists. It will be noticed, moreover, in running over this list, that philological studies are richly represented; and the culture of these has been continued in Holland, from that time until our own, in proof of which, we need only point to Wytttenbach, Peerlkamp, von Heusde, Cobet, and many beside. But the ardor of theological controversy gradually cooled; philosophy needed no longer a place of refuge; and it must be confessed that literary zeal subsided generally throughout the Batavian Republic. The reputation of this little kingdom in our own times is indeed less extensive, but it is not on that account the less worthy of our attention, if we regard its system of public instruction, inasmuch as its endeavors have been directed above all things else, to the elevation of the intellectual condition of the laboring classes of the people.

The Elementary Public Schools of Holland, have been officially visited by eminent scholars, and educators from different countries, by Cuvier, in 1811, Cousin, in 1836, from France; by Bache, from the United States, in 1837; by Nichols, in 1838, and Arnold, in 1856, from England; and by Prof. LeRoy, of Belgium, in 1860; who all unite in their reports, in the warmest commendation of the practical working of the system on which the schools are organized and administered, and of the condition of popular education throughout the kingdom. From that report, and from official documents, we shall present a more comprehensive and documentary account of the system than has yet appeared in the English language.

Cuvier, in his report, of 1811, had given a rather sad picture of the universities and Latin schools of Holland. The French government, (which had been established over the country under Napoleon I.) heeded his suggestions, and introduced some important reforms. In 1814, Prince William, afterward king of the Netherlands, made it one of his first cares to confirm and perfect these changes. The royal ordinances of 2d August, 1815, and again of 9th Sept., 1826, in relation to instruction in the mathematics, which had hitherto been neglected, are evidence of his endeavors. Since that time their improvement has been uninterrupted; but still it can not be claimed that instruction in the higher branches, other than the classics, has reached the degree of excellence long ago attained in neighboring countries. It is otherwise with elementary instruction. By the law of 13th August, 1806, the system was reorganized throughout, and recently it has again been remodeled, by the law of 13th April, 1857, which gave rise in the chambers to debates of the highest interest.

The system of public instruction in Holland, embraces:

- I. Primary, or Elementary Schools.
- II. Secondary, or Intermediate Schools.
- III. Superior Schools, or Universities, or Athenæums.
- IV. Special, or Professional Schools.
- V. Supplementary Institutions and Agencies for supplying deficient institutions, or advancing Education, Science, and the Arts.

VII. PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL*

AT HAARLEM, IN HOLLAND.

THIS school is peculiar in regard to instruction, practice in teaching, and discipline. It is intended to prepare for at least the second grade among primary teachers, which, it will be remembered, qualifies for the mastership of any primary school, the first class being an honorary grade. The age of admission, the time of continuance, and the courses of instruction, are regulated accordingly.

The director† is the head of the institution, and controls absolutely all its arrangements. His principle, that a teacher in such a place should be left to study the character and dispositions of his pupils, and to adapt his instruction and discipline to them, dispenses with rules and regulations, or constitutes the director the rule.‡ To carry out this principle, requires that the school should not be numerous, and it is accordingly limited to forty pupils. There is an assistant to the director, who shares in the general instruction with him, and upon whom the religious teaching of the pupils specially devolves. The school is visited periodically by the inspector-general, who examines the pupils personally, and notes their general and individual proficiency.

To be admitted, a youth must be over fifteen years of age, and have passed an examination upon the studies of the elementary school, satisfactory to a district-inspector, who recommends him for admission. He is received on probation, and, at the end of three months, if his conduct and proficiency are satisfactory to the director, is recommended to the minister of public instruction, who confirms his appointment.

The course of theory and practice lasts four years in general, though, if a pupil have the third lower grade of public instruction in view, which is attainable at eighteen years of age, he is not required to remain connected with the institution beyond that age, and indeed may leave it, on his own responsibility, before the close of the regular course. The second grade is only attainable at the age of twenty-two, and hence it is not usual for pupils to enter this school as early as the law permits. The theoretical instruction is composed of a review and extension of the elementary branches, as the Dutch language, geography, arithmetic, elementary geometry, the history of the country, natural history, religion, writing, and vocal music, and also of general geography and history, natural philosophy, and the science and art of teaching. This is communicated in the evenings, the pupils meeting at the school for the purpose. During the day they are occupied in receiving practical instruction, by teaching under the inspection of the director in the elementary school already spoken of, attached to the normal school, and occupying its rooms, or in teaching in some other of the elementary schools of the town of Haarlem. They pass through different establishments in turn, so as to see a variety in the character of instruction. The director, as inspector of primary schools in this district, visits frequently those where his pupils are employed, and observes their teaching, and also receives a report from

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† Mr. Prinsen, one of a class of teachers who adorn this profession in Holland.

‡ When M. Cousin, in his visit to Haarlem, invited Mr. Prinsen to communicate to him the regulations of his school, and then to show him how they were carried out, first the rule, then the results, the director replied, "I am the rule."

the masters. The observations and reports are turned to account in subsequent meetings with his class.

The pupils do not board together in the normal school, but are distributed through the town, in certain families selected by the director. They form a part of these families during their residence with them, being responsible to the head for the time of their absence from the house, their hours, and conduct. They take their meals with the families, and are furnished with a study and sleeping-room, fire, lights, &c. The director pays the moderate sum required for this accommodation from the annual stipend allowed by government.* The efficiency of such a system depends, of course, upon the habits of family life of the country, and upon the locality where the school is established. In Holland and Haarlem the plan succeeds well, and has the advantage that the pupils are constantly, in a degree, their own masters, and must control themselves, and that they are never placed in an artificial state of society or kind of life, which is the case when they are collected in one establishment. The director makes frequent visits to these families, and is informed of the home character of his pupils. The discipline of a normal school is, of course, one of the easiest tasks connected with it, for improprieties or levities of conduct are inconsistent with the future calling of the youth. Admonition by the assistant and by the director are the only coercive means resorted to, previous to dismissal. The director has authority to dismiss a student without consulting the minister, merely reporting the fact and case to him. Though this power may be important in increasing his influence, yet it has been necessary to exercise it but three times in twenty years. There are two vacations of from four to six weeks each, during which the pupils, in general, return to their friends. The school has a lending-library of books relating to teaching, and of miscellaneous works. This useful institution supplies for the primary schools, every year, from eight to twelve well-prepared masters, who propagate throughout the country the excellent methods and principles of teaching here inculcated.

* This annual stipend is ninety dollars. Supposing that a student has an entire bursary, he will require some additional funds to support him while at the school; for his board, lodging, &c., cost two dollars per week, which, for the forty-two weeks of term-time, amounts to eighty-four dollars, leaving him but six dollars for incidental expenses.

VIII. MILITARY SYSTEM AND EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

I. MILITARY SYSTEM.

THE Emperor is commander-in-chief of all the forces, by sea and land, assisted by the Staff-Office, the members of which are expert linguists, as well as scientific experienced and military officers. The army is under a Minister of War, assisted by a colleague and a military council. The office of Master of Ordnance is generally filled by a grand prince. The regular force, or army of occupation consists of about 783,000 men, which can be easily swelled to at least 1,200,000, as the whole male population are liable to serve when summoned. The army is mainly recruited by conscription, which falls on the serfs and laboring population, as the nobility, officials, clergy and merchants are exempted. The term of service is twenty years for the guards, twenty two for the line, and twenty-five for the train and military servants. But few pensions are granted to discharged or furloughed soldiers, although veteran soldiers are frequently appointed to situations as doorkeepers, watchmen, overseers, &c., in government establishments and public institutions.

Promotion by seniority, imperial favor, and good conduct on the field. Every officer must be educated and trained to his business, and serve from the lowest to the highest rank. Non-commissioned officers, musicians, assistant veterinary surgeons, head workmen in the military workshops and factories must all be trained for their special duties. A large portion of these classes are the sons of soldiers, who have been surrendered by their parents to the government, who receive them at the age of six or twelve, by special arrangement. They are termed *cantonists*. Among the special military schools of a technological character are, eleven for garrison artillery; three for armories; three for powder mills; three for arsenals; one for riding masters; one for fencing; one for accountants; one for topographical drawing, &c.

II. MILITARY SCHOOL FOR OFFICERS.

The officers of the Russian army obtain their first commission after passing through the Military Schools or Cadet Corps, or if qualified in scientific and other instruction, ascertained by open examination, by serving as privates six months, and as sergeants or ensign two years. Applicants for the Staff Corps, must have served as officers two years, must be recommended by their superior, and have been two years in the Staff School—and there pass an honorable examination in military history and strategy. The following statistics are taken from the *Kalender* of the St. Petersburg Academy, for 1859.

I. Under a Commission or Board of Military Instruction, which reports directly to the Emperor, there are

3 Military Schools of Special Application, viz.:			
1 The Nicholas Academy of the Staff, with	22 teachers and 250 scholars.		
1 The Nicholas Upper Engineer School,	" 50 "	126	"
1 The Michael Artillery School,.....	" 32 "	117	"
1 Page Corps, or College,.....	" 41 "	159	"
1 Ensign's School of the Guards,.....	" 31 "	206	"
22 Cadet Corps or Military Colleges,.....	" 723 "	7440	"
27	899 "	8,298	"

The Cadet Corps, or Military Schools, receive their pupils young, and impart a general as well as a scientific education, preparatory to entering the Special Schools of Application either for Engineer, or Artillery, and later in years and experience, the Staff School. These Special Military Schools are not surpassed by any of the same class in Europe.

II. Under the Ministry of War there are the following Scientific Establishments and Schools.

22 Military Schools, with.....	326 teachers and 10,000 scholars.
3 Lower or Element. Artillery Schools, 22	" 166 "
1 Topographers' School, with	13 " 140 "
1 Medico-Chirurgical Academy, with 35	" 978 "
Military Hospitals,	1,020 "
3 Veterinary Schools,.....	12,304 "

The Military Schools are of an elementary and technological character, and are intended to supersede a class of schools known as the *Cantonist* Schools.

The experience of the Crimean War demonstrated to the world, the wise forecast of the Russian government in providing for the thorough scientific and practical training of the officers of her great armies as was confessed by the "*London Times*," in the bitter disappointments of the English people with their own officers.

THE IMPERIAL STAFF SCHOOL AT ST. PETERSBURG.

[Extracts from Governmental Regulations.]

I. GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

A **MILITARY Academy**, the highest institution of its class, is founded in St. Petersburg, to educate Officers for the service of the General Staff, and to promote the diffusion of Military Science in general. Its special functions are—

1. To prepare Officers for the special service of the General Staff.
2. To furnish to a certain number of Officers from the Artillery and Chief Engineer School a course of Grand Tactics and Strategy, on the same principles and to the same extent as it is furnished to the Officers preparing for the Service of the General Staff.
3. To apply all the means indicated in these Regulations to the diffusion of Military Science.

From forty to fifty Officers shall be educated in the Academy for the special service of the General Staff, and about ten from the Artillery and from the Chief Engineer School.

The Military Academy is under the immediate control of the Chief of the Staff of His Imperial Majesty, and is under the direction of a President appointed by the Emperor.

A Council, presided over by the President, considers and determines all important questions relating to Studies and Economic Administration.

A Vice-President, appointed by the Emperor, is associated with the President to assist him in the performance of his official duties.

The Officers receiving an education for the General Staff are placed under the control of four Staff Officers appointed by the Emperor.

The subjects of Study and the Scientific Course are divided into two Sections, the Theoretical and the Practical.

The number of Professors, Adjuncts, and Teachers is determined according to circumstances by the Academic Council, with the approbation of the Chief of the Staff of his Imperial Majesty.

The Salaries of the Officials for the internal service of the Academy are fixed in the List annexed to these Statutes.

It is the most sacred duty of the whole Staff of the Academy, and in particular of the Chiefs and Professors, never to lose sight of its object; and while they devote themselves to extend the knowledge of the student Officers, to impress upon them, by teaching and example, the precepts of the purest morality, the true and exact performance of their professional duties, an unconditional obedience to their superiors, and an inviolable devotion to the throne and their country.

The Academy has a peculiar Seal.

II. ADMISSION TO STUDENTS.

Only Superior Officers can enter into the Academy, and these up to the rank of Staff Captain if they serve in the Guards, Artillery, or Engineers; up to the rank of Captain, if they belong to an Army Regiment.

The Directors of the Noble Guard School, of the Page Corps, of the First, Second, Pant, Moscow, and Finland Cadet Corps, have the right to propose in the proper quarter, for admission into the Academy, the most distinguished Officers who have left these military institutions.

The Officers proposed for admission into the Academy must be at least eighteen years old, and be distinguished for capacity, industry, diligence, morals, and good conduct.

Officers from the Regiments and Artillery Brigades must present testimonials of blameless morals, conduct, and zeal for the Service from the Chief of their Division. Officers from the Engineer Battalions must present similar testimonials from the Chiefs of their Brigades.

Those who give testimonials are strictly responsible for their truth, as are the Chiefs of the Military Schools for the capacity and qualifications of the Officers they propose.

Admission into the Academy depends upon a strict examination in the following subjects:—

a. Languages:

Russian, German, or French.

b. Mathematics:

Arithmetic, Algebra to Equations of the Second Degree, Plane and Solid Geometry, and Plane Trigonometry.

c. Military Sciences:

The Principles of Intrenchment, Fortification, and Artillery.

d. Evolution:

Evolutions of a Battalion of Tirailleurs, of a Squadron, of a Whole Line, of a Scattered Front (*Zerstreuten Fronte*), and, lastly, the Service of Outposts.

e. History:

General History of the World to the sixteenth century in its chief epochs, particularly in reference to Russia; special Histories of the European States in modern times.

f. Geography:

Universal Geography, and particularly that of the Russian Empire and the neighboring States.

Besides this, a clear conception of Situation, Plans, and Topographical Charts is required.

III. METHOD OF INSTRUCTION.

The Scientific Course is divided into two Sections,—The Theoretical and the Practical. The Theoretical part of the higher Military Sciences is expounded by the Professors, their Adjuncts, and the Teachers. Those Officers who belong to the Practical Section exercise themselves under the guidance of the Professors.

- a. In Written Exercises on any proposed Military Subject.
- b. In the composition of Military Descriptions (*Beschreibungen*.) of every kind.
- c. In the Art of taking Military Surveys of a Country, and of judging the Tactical Nature of a Ground.

In each Section there are from twenty to twenty-five Officers destined for the Service of the General Staff, and from four to five from the Artillery and Chief Engineer School.

These Officers, according to their capacities and attainments in the Military Sciences, enter either into the Theoretical Section or into both the Theoretical and the Practical Section at the same time, and remain in each a year.

The complete Academic Course in both Sections extends over two years.

The following subjects are taught:—

- a. Russian literature, with particular reference to the composition of Military Essays in a faultless style, and to the style of the Military Chancery (writing department of the War Office.)
- b. General ideas on Artillery, and more precise details on the same subject as a Special Arm; its use in the open field and in sieges.
- c. Petty Tactics in the employment of a single Division, with which all Officers must be thoroughly familiar, as this is indispensable to all. To this is joined the theory of the formation of columns, of their use, of the effect of the fire of Infantry, and lastly, the explanation of all evolutions with the three arms which are usually employed for movement, deployment, or forming in order of battle.
- d. The Elements of Topography and Geodesy, of Military Drawing, and the art of measuring situations by the eye.
- e. Military coup d'œil (*Scharfblick*.) and the art of judging the tactical nature of ground.
- f. Castrametation, or the art of encamping, and the theory of positions.
- g. Logistic, or all that relates to the details of marches, either in presence of the enemy, or in the movement of troops from one place to another.
- h. Intrenchment and fortification, as far as regards the attack and defense of intrenched camps and fortified places, and the effect of intrenchments and fortifications on the operations of an active army.

- c. Grand Tactics, embracing the various systems of the Order of Battle; and the formation and employment of the Three Arms, and treating of unexpected engagements or the sudden collision of two hostile Divisions.
- d. The Military Geography of Europe, particularly that of the Russian Empire and the neighboring States.
- e. Military Statistics, or knowledge of the land and sea Forces and warlike means of all the European States.
- f. Strategy in all its extent; with a criticism on the last wars, and an indication of the events which demonstrate the influence of this science on the success of a campaign.
- g. A general view of military history in its most remarkable periods, from the earliest times to Peter the Great, and a more complete view of the Military History of modern times.
- h. The literary History of the Military Sciences, with a criticism on the best ancient and modern writers on the History of War; and a special reference of those who may contribute to the further education of the Officers after their departure from the Academy.
- i. Duties of the General Staff Officer in times both of peace and war.
- j. The art of riding.

The officers of the Practical Division are employed on the same Sciences; not, however, during the hours of lecture, but by practicing under the direction of the Professors, and according to the regulations of the Academic authorities.

The subjects they are employed upon are principally the following:—

- a. Topographical and Tactical description of ground after inspection.
- b. Military Geography and Statistics.
- c. Logistic.
- d. Grand Tactics.
- e. Strategy.
- f. Military History.
- g. Literature of the Military Sciences.
- h. Designing plans of battles and manoeuvres, as exercises in Topography, Logistic, and Tactics.
- i. Historic reports, and keeping the usual journal of the General Staff.
- j. All that belong to the survey of a country, and the practical working of the Artillery and Siege operations.

Teachers are appointed for those officers who require to be perfected in the French or German language.

All the sciences are taught in the Academy in the Russian language; and an exposition in French or German is only allowed when dictated by circumstances, and then a special permission must be first obtained from the Chief of the Staff of his Imperial Majesty.

The Officers of the Practical Section are also required to use their native tongue in their written exercises, except in one or two composed in a foreign language by the direction of the authorities.

In summer, the Officers of the Theoretical Section repair to regiments to which they are directed to learn the camp service. The Officers of the Practical Section make surveys and reconnaissances,

mark out camps and proportionate intrenchments on a given ground. At the time of grand manœuvres, they are associated with Officers of the General Staff, and have the opportunity of witnessing the practical exercises of the Artillery and Sappers, in order to be able to make a report as eye-witnesses on the effect of Artillery and Siege operations.

IV. LOCAL REGULATIONS.

All Officers receiving an education in the Academy are entered on the rolls of their Regiments, Artillery Brigades, and Sapper Battalions, as supernumeraries and detached Officers, without, however, losing their standing or right of promotion by seniority, their pay, servants' rations, or any other advantages enjoyed by Officers present with their troop.

Those Officers who enter the Academy from the Regiments of the Garrison of St. Petersburg continue, while they belong to it, to perform the front service of their Regiments; those who come from the Artillery and Sapper Brigades, or from Regiments not stationed in St. Petersburg, are attached for the front service to one of the Regiments of the Garrison of St. Petersburg; the necessary arrangements are made by the authorities of the Guard Corps.

The Officers of the Artillery and Chief Engineer School, having only to attend the Course of Grand Tactics and Strategy, retain their posts while studying in the Academy.

Four Staff Officers, appointed by the Emperor, have the immediate control of the Officers preparing themselves for the service of the General Staff; they are to exercise a vigilant supervision over them, and to report on their conduct to the Vice-President; they are the organ by which all orders reach the Officers, and they form a Court of the First Instance in matters relating to the Service.

One day in the week is devoted to drill, and every day two officers mount guard with the first division of the garrison of St. Petersburg.

The Officers are to devote exclusively to study the leisure hours at their command after the performance of front and garrison duties; and are to observe, in all respects, the Statutes of the Academy.

To facilitate, economically, the residence of the Officers in St. Petersburg, they receive, with the exception of those belonging to the Guard, besides their usual pay and an allowance for quarters according to their rank, an annual allowance of 500 roubles, which is paid in the Academy.

Officers ordered to survey a country, or to make a reconnaissance,

receive their traveling expenses from the Commissariat, according to the distance to which they are sent, and in proportion to their rank: their board expenses are not allowed.

V. REGULATIONS RESPECTING PROMOTION.

The course is terminated, and Students finish their career, in October annually.

At the same time, Officers are removed from the Theoretical section to the Practical, making place for candidates who wish to enter the former.

At their departure from the Academy the Officers receive from the Academic Council testimonials of conduct and scientific attainments, with a memorial of the rewards which they receive at leaving.

On leaving the Academy the Officers have to act as follows: those who belonged to the Artillery, or Chief Engineer School, repair to their highest Commanding Officer; the rest, who were educated for the service of the General Staff, return to their Regiments, Artillery Brigades, or Sapper Battalions, on whose rolls they remain as supernumeraries and Officers reckoned as of the General Staff, until they are formally transferred to the latter.

The rewards to which Officers can acquire a claim at leaving the Academy are the following:—The most distinguished is promoted to the lowest rank (on the Staff,) and receives a golden medal; he is only entitled to this if all the teachers give him the full number balls, and unanimously recognize him as most conspicuous for attainments. Besides this, he must have written a satisfactory essay on a given theme, relating to some important war, and have been blameless in moral conduct during his residence in the Academy. The student who is recognized as second, both in attainments and behavior, and has also obtained the full number of balls, is rewarded with the great silver medal, and receives double pay for a year. The student who obtains the third place in attainments and behavior, and the full number of balls, receives the little silver medal, and double pay for a year. Each medal bears the name of its possessor. Besides this, the names of all those who obtain one of the three above-mentioned rewards are engraved on marble tablets, which adorn the walls of one of the halls of the Academic building.

Should any of the Students feel no inclination for the service of the General Staff, even after a successful termination of the Theoretical Course, he may always request to be dismissed to his Regiment, Artillery Brigade, or Sapper Battalion.

Every Officer who at his departure from the Academy obtains a testimonial of having accomplished the object of his admission, and in consequence is provisionally destined for the service of the General Staff, if he continues after his return to his Regiment to educate himself for his vocation, and distinguishes himself by observance of a strict discipline, by conduct and zeal for the service, is rewarded at the end of a year by being completely transferred to the General Staff; and if he belonged to the Young Guard, the Artillery, or a Sapper Battalion, his right to promotion immediately commences; not so if he belonged to Troops of the Line.

Every year, on the 1st of January, the Chief of the Regiment, Artillery Brigade, or Sapper Battalion in command of an Officer reckoned as of the General Staff, forwards his form and his conduct list to the Quartermaster-General of the General Staff, who lays it before the Chief of the General Staff. At the same time the above-mentioned papers are communicated to the Chief in command of the Officer.

Besides this, the above-mentioned Chief makes a similar report on the zeal for the service and moral conduct of the Officers twice a year, namely, on the 1st of March and the 1st of September; and at the same time reports exactly on the way in which he performs the service of the front.

No Officer reckoned as of the General Staff is to be charged with the duties of Paymaster service in his Regiment, or employed as Quartermaster; and if any General wishes to select him for his Adjutant, he must first communicate with the Quartermaster-General of the General Staff.

If the General Staff is increased in time of war, or if any work on which it is employed requires to be accelerated in time of peace, the Chief of the General Staff commissions the Quartermaster-General to select the requisite number out of the Officers who are reckoned as of the General Staff. The latter then makes the selection, and announces the names of the Officers selected to their highest Commanding Officer. As soon as the object proposed is accomplished, these Officers return back to their commands. Such a selection, however, can only fall upon those who have spent at least two years with their commands after their departure from the Academy. If in the meantime an Officer has become Chief of a Battalion or Squadron, he shall not be transferred from this post before the lapse of a year. As soon as any of these Officers, or, in general, any Officer, who has left the Academy, reports himself at

his Corps, his Chief immediately announces his arrival to the Quartermaster-General of the Staff.

To familiarize the Officers reckoned of the General Staff with the rules of the Art of War while they remain with their commands, and to practice them in the duties which belong to Officers of the General Staff, the Quartermaster-General is directed to charge them with such duties as may develop their talent, without, however, removing them for that purpose from the service of the front. These commissions of the Quartermaster-General are communicated through their superior Officers, who are directed not only to watch over their performance of these commissions, but also to assist them therein to the utmost of their power.

IX. DANIEL H. BARNES.

BY GULIAN C. VERPLANK.*

DANIEL H. BARNES was born in the county of Columbia, in the State of New York, in the year 1785, and was educated at Union College, in Schenectady. He early devoted himself to the instruction of youth, and soon after he had completed his collegiate course, was appointed master of the Grammar School attached to Union College. Here he gained not only experience but reputation, and some years after, was chosen Principal of the respectable Academy at Poughkeepsie, one of the incorporated seminaries of education under the patronage and visitation of the Regents of the University of New York. That institution flourished under his charge for several years, and in it many individuals, now filling honorable stations in various walks of life, received the most valuable part of their classical and scientific education. He was, however, tempted to leave this station by an invitation to Cincinnati, Ohio, where he was placed at the head of an incorporated academic or collegiate establishment for the higher branches of education. At Cincinnati, his situation was honorable, and his services, as usual, were laborious and successful. The enterprise, the activity, the rapid growth and improvement so conspicuous in that country, unparalleled in its progress, in population, cultivation and refinement, were congenial to the unwearied activity and benevolent ardor of his own mind. The yet unexplored natural riches of that region of the west, added, besides, fresh excitements to his liberal and indefatigable curiosity.

But he found the climate of Ohio unfriendly to his constitution, and was reluctantly obliged some years ago to resign his duties there, and return to his native air on the Atlantic coast. He then established a private classical school in this city, where he soon acquired the same reputation which he had enjoyed at other places of his residence. In this city, his mind was enlarged and excited by

* This Memoir was prepared by Hon. Gulian C. Verplank, President of the Trustees of the New York High School Society, soon after the death of Mr. Barnes, and published in the Fourth Annual Report of that Society, in 1838.

new objects of curiosity and instruction, and the society of men eminent in various ways for talent or acquirement. His studies took a wider range. He became an ardent and successful student of Natural History. From the study of the languages and literature of antiquity, he advanced on to the higher branches of Philology, and the Philosophy of language. He improved his knowledge of chemical and physical science, and became conversant with their application to the useful arts.

During this period, too, his early and deep-seated religious convictions and feelings, which had long ruled his life, led him to the more regular and systematic study of theology, and he became an ordained minister of the Baptist church.

Sensible, doubtless, that the instruction of youth was the peculiar talent which had been intrusted to him, and believing that he could thus, "according to his ability," best serve his Master, he never became the regular pastor of any church or congregation. His appearance in the pulpit was, therefore, rare and occasional; but I am told that his discourses and public prayers were distinguished for the soundness of their doctrine and the earnest fervor of their eloquence. His theological opinions were those of the Calvinistic Baptists. That he believed the doctrines he professed, firmly and conscientiously, his life is a proof. That sincerity in his own belief was united in him with charity for those who differed from it, is attested by his friendly connection in this institution with an Associate Principal of the Society of Friends, and a Board of Trustees of various other denominations; and still more by the earnestness and fidelity with which, on proper occasions, he here enforced the great principles of faith and morals, upon a large body of pupils educated in all the different modes of worship known amongst us, without ever irritating the feelings, or exciting the prejudices of any parent or pupil.

The respect and confidence with which he was regarded by that numerous and respectable body of Christians with whom he was immediately connected, were shown, first, by his appointment to a Professorship of Hebrew and Greek, in a Theological institution, founded some years ago, for the instruction of candidates for the ministry in the Baptist church, and more recently, by his unanimous election to the office of President of the Columbian College in the District of Columbia, a seminary of general learning under the peculiar, though not exclusive patronage and government of the same communion. This last appointment, after some suspense, he relinquished in favor of the High School; to which he had been devoted from its foundation.

Our deceased friend's natural ardor of mind, directed, as it always was, by the sense of duty and the sentiments of philanthropy, made him one of those who can never become the slaves of routine and custom, and who can not be content with what is merely well, as long as it seems practicable to make it better. Alike in the government of his own heart and conscience, in the pursuits of science, and in the business of education, his constant aspiration was to improvement.

His attention was early directed to the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster, and its extension from simple elementary instruction to the mathematics, ancient and modern languages, and such branches of science as do not require the aid of lectures or experiment. He had satisfied himself of the value of this system by trial on a small scale, in his own private classes, when his confidence in its efficacy was increased by its successful application in the High School of Edinburgh, by Prof. Pillans, as well as by the attestations of Drs. Mann and D'Oyley, to its use in the Charter-House School of London.

He, therefore, eagerly coöperated in the foundation of the High School for boys, in 1824, became one of the two Associate Principals, and continued the faithful and efficient head of the classical department until his death.

The school was often thronged with visitors and teachers from abroad, anxious to learn and diffuse its methods of instruction; and one of the best proofs of its merit, and that of its principals, is the fact that it was the model of numerous and most valuable similar establishments in various parts of the Union.

It was in the midst of this career of useful and honorable service that he was snatched from us.

He had been invited last month by the trustees and officers of the "Rensselaer School," recently founded near Troy, by the well-judged munificence of one of our most honored, and patriotic citizens, to attend their annual examination. He had taken great interest in this school from its foundation, as it had been in part modeled on the plan of his own system of instruction, and because it combines with the usual elementary course, the rudiments of natural and physical science, and the practice of agriculture.

"I must go," said he, in words of fatal import. I need not detail the circumstances of his death. On his way thither he was thrown from a stage, and expired a few hours afterward.

He died regretted and honored by all who knew his public ser-

vices, and deeply mourned by those friends who more intimately knew and loved his private virtues.

In this simple narrative of Mr. Barnes's life, much of his character has been anticipated. It is due, however, to his memory to say something more of his character as a scholar and a man of science, and his merit as an instructor.

He was an excellent classical scholar, accurately skilled in the Latin and Greek languages, to which he added considerable acquirements in the Hebrew, and a familiar acquaintance with modern languages and literature. As a philologist, like other zealous cultivators of that branch of study, he was perhaps disposed to push favorite theories to an extreme; but he was learned, acute, and philosophical. His acquirements in mathematics were highly respectable, but I think that he never devoted himself to this science with the same zeal as to other collateral studies.

It is probably as a Naturalist, that his name will be best known to posterity, as it already is in Europe. He was a most industrious member of the Lyceum of Natural History in this city, a society which without parade, or public patronage, displaying in a rare degree the love of learning without the parade of it, has for many years cultivated the natural sciences with admirable zeal, industry, and success. They have joined us in paying the last honors to the memory of our deceased associate, and it is to one of their members, himself a naturalist of well-earned reputation, that I am indebted for the following brief, but very honorable tribute to Mr. Barnes's labors and attainments as a naturalist.

"About the year 1819, he turned his attention to the Natural Sciences, and his connection with the Lyceum of this city, nearly at the same time, gave additional impulse to the characteristic zeal with which he prosecuted his new studies. The departments of Mineralogy and Geology occupied his attention, and the first fruits of his inquiries are to be found in a paper read before the Lyceum, entitled a "Geological survey of the Canaan mountains, with observations on the soil and productions of the neighboring regions."* In this paper he showed himself well conversant with Botany and Zoölogy. To this latter branch of Natural History he subsequently devoted his leisure hours with greater avidity; and communicated to the Lyceum a curious and original paper, "On the Genera *Unio* et *Alasmodonta*,"† a family of fresh water shells distinguished for their beauty and their almost infinite variety of form. Shortly after ap-

* Subsequently published in the Fifth volume of Silliman's Journal.

† See Silliman's Journal for 1823.

peared in the annals of the Lyceum, several other papers from Mr. Barnes, on similar subjects. Two of these may be particularly noted, one on "the Genus Cluton," and the other on "the doubtful reptiles."

The reputation of Mr. Barnes as a naturalist, will be immovably established upon his memoir on the shells of his country. The introductory observations applicable to the whole study of Conchology are marked by that precision, clearness, and lucid order for which he was remarkable. He described above twenty new species; and a short time before his death, he received a flattering proof of the estimation in which his labors were held by the learned of Europe.

The great and splendid work of Humboldt, on Mexico, of which the Zoölogical part is now in course of publication, contains beautiful plates and descriptions of the genera just referred to. The first zoölogical critic of Europe, (the Baron de Ferussac,) in commenting upon this work, points out many errors into which the author has fallen; "errors," he observes, "which had arisen from his not having consulted the works of American naturalists, and especially the labors of Mr. Barnes."

As a naturalist, Mr. Barnes had very peculiar qualifications. Familiar with the learned and several modern languages, he was enabled to pursue his investigations beyond the narrow limits of his own. His inquiries were conducted with a caution, a patience, and a modest diffidence, which can not be too much imitated. He was scrupulously exact in his descriptions, and exhibited a laudable hesitation at generalizing from obscure or doubtful premises. Engaged in laborious avocations, which occupied the greatest part of his time, it was only in hastily snatched intervals of leisure, that he could devote himself to those pursuits which form the serious business of life, with those who have gained distinction in them. The reputation, however, of a scientific man does not depend upon the quantity of his writings, and if it should be said that Barnes has written little, when compared with the labors of the professed naturalist, let it be remembered that that little has been done singularly well."

In addition to this just and discriminating character, I have only to add that he never regarded these acquisitions, or indeed any others not immediately entering into the uses of life, as of ultimate value in themselves. He cherished and cultivated the study of Nature as furnishing truer conceptions of the Creator's wisdom, as giving employment to the understanding and habits of accurate and attentive observation, and as frequently and often unexpectedly leading to results increasing the power or the happiness of man.

With these views of the objects of the science, whilst in his more elaborate printed essays he addressed the scientific naturalist, he was wont, in occasional popular lectures to his pupils, to unfold to them the infinite beauty, the diversified simplicity of the order of nature. To borrow the eloquent language of an accomplished scholar,* who amidst the laborious occupations of a busy life, has found leisure to become the first naturalist of our country; he taught them how, by the light of science, "the very earth on which we tread becomes animate—every rock, every plant, every insect presents to our view an organization so wonderful, so varied, so complex—an adaptation of means to ends so simple, so diversified, so extensive, so perfect, that the wisdom of man shrinks abashed at the comparison. Nor is it to present existence that our observations are confined. The mind may thus be enabled to retrace the march of ages—to examine of the earth the revolutions that have formed and deranged its structure—of its inhabitants, the creation, the dissolution, the continual reproduction—to admire that harmony which, while it has taught each being instinctively to pursue the primary objects of its creation, has rendered them all subservient to secondary purposes." With the same eloquent naturalist he might have added, "The study of Natural History has been for many years the occupation of my leisure moments; it is a merited tribute to say, that it has lightened for me many a heavy, and smoothed many a rugged hour; that beguiled by its charms I have found no road rough or difficult, no journey tedious, no country desolate or barren. In solitude never solitary, in a desert never without employment. I have found it a relief from the languor of idleness, the pressure of business, and the unavoidable calamities of life."

In his own profession, as a teacher of youth, Mr. Barnes had long enjoyed a merited reputation. Able and willing to teach, and to teach well, all those branches of knowledge which the wants or opinions of society require, as essential for pursuits of active life, he did not consider the mere drilling of his pupils in those studies as a sufficient discharge of his duty. He felt a warm and parental interest in them, and delighted to throw before them such collateral information as might stimulate their curiosity, or, without the labor of formal duty, enrich their minds with hints and outlines of science as might in after life be filled up and completed.

He was accordingly peculiarly well adapted to the institution over which he presided. It was our hope, in founding these schools, that

* Stephen Elliott, President of the Bank of South Carolina, "Address before the Literary and Philosophical Society of Charleston, S. C."

whilst the learned languages would be well taught, accurate instruction might also be given in all those practical parts of education which fit men for the daily business of life. The experiment has been satisfactory; and whilst the pupils of Mr. Barnes, who have entered the several colleges, have not fallen behind in any important part of classical learning, there have gone forth every year from the school a number of other youth with minds habituated to well-directed and profitable application, and liberalized and invigorated by various and valuable knowledge.

Nor were the peculiar obligations of the minister of a holy religion, forgotten by him in those of the teacher of human learning. He omitted none of those opportunities which the course of discipline and instruction constantly presented, to impress on those under his care notions of sound morals, to correct those of false honor and pride, to awaken rational piety, or to quicken those moral sensibilities, which, though they may be dormant in youth, are rarely dead.

It has been to me a source of pleasure, though a melancholy one, that in rendering this public tribute to the worth of our departed friend, the respectable members of two bodies, one of them the most devoted and efficient in its scientific inquiries, the other comprising so many names eminent for philanthropy and learning, have met to do honor to the memory of a SCHOOLMASTER.

There are prouder themes for the eulogist than this. The praise of the statesman, the warrior, or the orator, furnish more splendid topics for ambitious eloquence; but no theme can be more rich in desert, or more fruitful in public advantage.

The enlightened liberality of many of our State governments, (amongst which we may claim a proud distinction for our own,) has, by extending the common school system over their whole population, brought elementary education to the door of every family. In this State, it appears from the Annual Reports of the Secretary of the State, there are besides the fifty incorporated academies and numerous private schools, between eight and nine thousand school districts, in each of which instruction is regularly given. These contained last year, 441,850 children.*

Of what incalculable influence, then, for good or for evil, upon the dearest interests of society, must be the estimate entertained for the character of this great body of teachers, and the consequent respectability of the individuals who compose it!

At the recent general election of this State, the votes of 276,000

* In 1863, besides Colleges with 2,086 students, and 90 incorporated Academies and Public High Schools with 35,192 pupils, there were 11,734 Common School Districts, with 15,703 teachers, and 866,550 pupils, at a total expense of \$4,381,587.85.

persons were taken. In thirty years the great majority of these will have passed away; their right will be exercised, and their duties assumed by those very children, whose minds are now open to receive their earliest and most durable impressions from the ten thousand schoolmasters of this State.

What else is there in the whole of our social system of such extensive and powerful operation on the national character? There is one other influence more powerful, and but one. It is that of the MOTHER. The forms of a free government, the provisions of wise legislation, the schemes of the statesman, the sacrifices of the patriot, are as nothing compared with these. If the future citizens of our republic are to be worthy of their rich inheritance, they must be made so principally through the virtue and intelligence of their Mothers. It is in the school of maternal tenderness that the kind affections must be first roused and made habitual—the early sentiment of piety awakened and rightly directed—the sense of duty and moral responsibility unfolded and enlightened. But next in rank and in efficacy to that pure and holy source of moral influence is that of the Schoolmaster. It is powerful already. What would it be if in every one of those school districts which we now count by annually increasing thousands, there were to be found one teacher well-informed, without pedantry, religious without bigotry or fanaticism, proud and fond of his profession, and honored in the discharge of its duties? How wide would be the intellectual, the moral influence of such a body of men. Many such we have amongst us. But to raise up a body of such men they and their calling must be cherished and honored.

The Schoolmaster's occupation is laborious and ungrateful; its rewards are scanty and precarious. He may indeed be, and he ought to be, animated by the consciousness of doing good, that best of all consolations, that noblest of all motives. But that too, must be often clouded by doubt and uncertainty. Obscure and inglorious as his daily occupation may appear to learned pride or wordly ambition, yet to be successful and happy, he must be animated by the spirit of the same great principles which inspired the most illustrious benefactors of mankind. If he bring to his task high talent and rich acquirement, he must be content to look into distant years for the proof that his labors have not been wasted—that the good seed which he daily scatters abroad does not fall on stony ground and wither away, or among thorns to be choked by the cares, the delusions, or the vices of the world. He must solace his toils with the same prophetic faith which enabled the greatest of modern

philosophers,* amidst the neglect or contempt of his own times, to regard himself as sowing the seeds of truth for posterity, and the care of Heaven. He must arm himself against disappointment and mortification, with a portion of that same noble confidence which soothed the greatest of modern poets when weighed down by care and danger, by poverty, old age, and blindness—

— In prophetic dream he saw
The youth unborn, with pious awe,
Imbibe each virtue from his sacred page.

How imperious then the obligation upon every enlightened citizen who knows and feels the value of such men, to aid them, to cheer them, and to honor them!

One of the establishments of this society was designed, we hope successfully, to improve and extend female education. Our other institution for male education, has had, besides its direct effect, the happy incidental one of elevating the station, enlarging the usefulness, and contributing to raise the character of the Schoolmaster amongst us.

Humble then as our labors in founding and fostering this institution may seem, and limited as they are in their sphere of action, we may look back to them with the purest satisfaction, since their certain fruit must be, the diffusion of light, and truth, and virtue, through the purest and most powerful of agents, the MOTHER and the SCHOOLMASTER.

* Bacon, "*Serere posteris ac Deo immortal.*"

X. MILITARY SYSTEM AND EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

I. MILITARY SYSTEM.

THE British army originated in the feudal system, by which the great barons were bound to furnish a contingent to the army of the State; and their vassals were bound to attend them in person, and to furnish each the contributions in men, horses, arms, and other materials of war, for which he was liable by the tenure on which he held his lands. When regal power absorbed the privileges of the great feudatories, the people were expected to provide themselves with arms, and, in case of invasion, to respond to the summons issued through officers commissioned by the sovereign to array the fittest men for service in each county. In the time of Henry VIII, lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants of counties were first appointed as standing officers for assembling and mustering the military forces. For a time, contracts were made with "captains," who undertook to provide, clothe, and feed a certain number of fighting men for a given money allowance. In the reign of Charles I, the important question arose, whether the King of England did or did not possess the right to maintain a military force without the express consent of Parliament. Charles II, was compelled to abandon all control of the army, except a body guard of 5,000 men, sanctioned by Parliament. These regiments still exist, and are proud of their genealogy. They are the First Foot Guards, Coldstream Guards, Life Guard, Oxford Blues, the Royal Scots, and the Second Queen's Royals.* The Declaration of Rights, in the time of William and Mary, settled in positive terms "that the raising and keeping of a standing army in time of peace, without consent of Parliament, is contrary to law." The first Mustering Act was passed in 1689, to last for six months; but it has been annually renewed ever since, except in three particular years; and it constitutes the only warrant on which the whole military system of England is exercised by the sovereign with the consent of Parliament. For 172 years, with only three interruptions, the ministers of the crown have an-

* Two regiments created in the reigns of Richard III, and of Henry VIII, the first styled *Gentlemen Pensioners*, or *Gentlemen at Arms*, consisting originally exclusively of noblemen, and the latter, *Yeomen of the Guard*, still exist. The latter is the only body that has the privilege of traversing London with flags flying, drums beating, and fixed bayonets.

nally applied to Parliament for permission to raise a military force and for money to defray expenses. The sovereign can make war and bestow military employment and honors; but the House of Commons can refuse supplies.

Military service in England is voluntary, except in rare cases, and then only in the militia. As the chances of promotion from the ranks are small, the recruits are drawn from the most necessitous classes of the community, or the least fitted for industrial pursuits. The system of recruiting, with the bounty and machinery of deception is the most characteristic feature of the British army as compared with those of Europe, and makes the distinction between officers and men more broad than in any other service.

The British army, in its completeness, is theoretically commanded by the sovereign, assisted by the secretary of state for war in some matters, and by the commander-in-chief in others. The component parts are the household troops, the infantry of the line, the ordnance corps, comprising artillery and engineers, and the marines. There are also certain corps, raised and belonging to the principal colonies; the troops in India; the yeomanry cavalry; the dockyard battalions; the volunteer artillery and rifles; the enrolled pensioners, etc. In 1814, the regular army reached 200,000, and at the close of the war, 10,000 officers were retained on half pay. In 1860-61, in the army estimates, provision was made for the following force, viz.:

	Home and Colonies.	India.	Total.
Cavalry	11,667	7,243	18,910
Infantry	103,169	66,345	169,514
Artillery	22,675	5,482	28,157
Engineers	4,730	—	4,730
Staff & Depot... ..	1,121	13,420	14,541
Total....	143,362	92,490	235,852

Under the column "India" are included only troops sent to India, and paid for out of the Indian revenues. Of the total 235,852 forces, 10,459 are officers, 17,670 non-commissioned officers, and 207,723 rank and file. For the use of this army, 24,342 horses are provided. The total expenditure sanctioned by Parliament in 1860 was £14,800,000, viz.:

Military Pay and Allowances, £5,500,000; Civil Salaries and Wages, £1,800,000; Stores and Works of every kind, £ 5,400,000; Pensions, Retired Pay, &c., £2,100,000.

The military force of various kinds within the United Kingdom, excluding the troops in East India, on the 1st of June, 1860, was 323,259, viz.:

Regulars (service companies), 68,778; Regulars (depot companies), 33,302; Embodied Militia, 15,911; Disembodied Militia—Effectives, 52,899; Yeomanry Cavalry—Effectives, 15,002; Enrolled Pensioners—Effectives, 15,000; Volunteer Rifles and Artillery, 122,867.

MILITARY EDUCATION.

The following account of the institutions for military education in England is abridged from an article in *Blackwood's Magazine* for November, 1858:

There exist in this country three military seminaries—the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, where youths are educated for service in the Artillery and Engineers; the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, where cadets are prepared for the Infantry and Cavalry; and the Honorable East India Company's Military School at Addiscombe, which educates simultaneously for the Artillery, Engineers, and Infantry services of the three Presidencies. Supplementary to these are the School of Practical Instruction at Chatham, where passed cadets from Woolwich and Addiscombe learn practical engineering; and the senior department at Sandhurst, supposed to be a Staff school, into which officers of infantry and cavalry are, under certain restrictions, admitted.

1. The Military Academy at Woolwich came into existence in the year 1741. It was created by George II., to supply a want under which the English army then suffered, by giving some instructions in matters connected with their respective arts to officers and men who served in the Artillery and in the Engineers. Its beginnings were of the humblest imaginable order. A single room in a house at Woolwich, where the Board of Ordnance used occasionally to assemble, was set apart by Government as a hall of study; and two masters were appointed to give lectures by rotation, during four consecutive hours, in three days of every week. At first only the officers of the single battalion composing the English Artillery and of the corps of Engineers were required to attend. By and by the room was thrown open to the non-commissioned officers and privates also, and eventually the cadets, of whom five were supposed to be on the strength of each company of Artillery, repaired thither in like manner. But the cadets being the sons of the officers of the corps, as they neither dressed in uniform, nor were under any military control, proved very difficult to manage; and the difficulty led to a great change as well in their condition as in that of the Academy itself.

In the year 1744 the cadets were, for the first time, clothed in uniform, and collected into a distinct company. Two officers, with a drum-major, undertook the management of them; and the arrangement worked, or was supposed to work, so satisfactorily, that by little and little, as the regiment enlarged itself, the numbers composing the Cadet Company were increased also. In 1782 they had grown from twenty to sixty; in 1798 to a hundred; after which steps were taken to lodge and board, as well as to educate and drill them, apart from the residences of their fathers. Hence, after trying for a while to accommodate some in a separate barrack, while others were billeted on private persons at a payment of 2s. a day per head, the pile which now attracts the attention of the passer-by on Woolwich Common was erected. And by the addition of a lieutenant-governor, and a whole host of officers and professors, it grew into the sort of establishment which is familiar to most of us. In 1806 the staff of officers and teachers appointed to the Cadet Company consisted of—

1. Lieutenant-Governor; 2. Inspector; 3. Professor of Mathematics; 4. Professor of Fortification; 5. Mathematical Master; 6. Arithmetical do.; 7. French do.; 8. Fortification do.; 9. Landscape-drawing do.; 10. Figure-drawing do.; 11. Second French do.; 12. Fencing do.; 13. Dancing do.; 14. First Modeller; 15. Second do.; 16. Clerk.

In 1829 the fencing and dancing masters were discontinued, and a chemical lecturer appointed. In 1836 three new masters were added; and in 1857 the staff stood thus:

Military.—A Governor; one Second Captain, commanding; one do. for Practical Class; four First-Lieutenants; one Quartermaster; one Staff-Sergeant; seven Drill-Sergeants; one Paymaster's Clerk; one Assistant do.; Servants.

Civil or Educational.—A Chaplain; Inspector—a Lieut.-Colonel of Artillery; Assistant do.—Major, R. E.; Professor of Fortification—Lieut.-Col. R. E.; two Assistants—Second Captains; Professor of Mathematics; seven Mathematical Masters; Master of Descriptive Geometry; Master for Geometrical Drawing; Drawing-Master for Landscape; Second do.; Master for Military Plan-Drawing—Bravet-Major, R. A.; Instructor in Surveying and Field Works—Captain, R. E.; Assistant do.—Captain, R. A.; Instructor in Practical Artillery—Second Captain, R. A.; Assistant do.—Second Captain, R. A.; four French Masters; four

German do.; Master for History and Geography; Lecturer in Chemistry; Assistant to do.; Lecturer in Geology and Mineralogy; Lecturer in Practical Mechanics, Machinery, and Metallurgy; Lecturer in Astronomy and Natural Philosophy; Clerk; First Assistant do.—a Sergeant; Second do.—Bombardier; one Drill-Sergeant—Practical Class; Modeller, Modelling Smith, Servants, &c.

Admittance to the Academy was, till very lately, obtained only on the nomination of the Master-General of the Ordnance. There was a preliminary examination, it is true; but this all except the dullest might calculate on passing, and the ages of entrance ranged between fourteen and sixteen. In 1835 the minimum age was raised to fifteen, the maximum to seventeen; while candidates were called up to compete for admission in the proportion of four youths for every three vacancies. The arrangement did not avail to produce any radical change in the spirit of the institution. The preliminary examination still proved to be a "pass," and no more; and so it continued till those political views obtained the ascendancy which abolished altogether the office of Master-General and Board of Ordnance, and gave us in their place a Secretary of State for the War Department.

Occasions had arisen, even under the old regime, when young men were permitted to enter the service of the Artillery under what may be called exceptional conditions. During the pressure of the great war of the French Revolution, the demand for officers became at one time so urgent, that it was found necessary to dispense with a regular academical education, and to give commissions to candidates who were pronounced by competent examiners sufficiently conversant with mathematics and physical science to enter upon the practical duties of their profession. Lord Panmure, taking advantage of the precedent thus furnished, threw open Artillery commissions in 1855, and has continued ever since to treat admission into the Royal Military Academy as a prize for which the youth of the United Kingdom may freely compete.

The subjects of study to be pursued in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, not less than the mode of dealing with them, and the text-books to be used, have hitherto been prescribed to the most minute particular by regulation. They embrace Mathematics, Fortification, Descriptive Geometry, French, German, Plan-Drawing, Geometrical Drawing, Landscape Drawing, History and Geography; to which, during his continuance in what are called the "theoretical classes," the attention of the cadet is confined. When he enters the "practical class," the student is instructed, over and above, in Practical Artillery, Surveying and Field-Works, and attends lectures in Astronomy, Chemistry, Geology, and Mineralogy. As many as five years may be spent by a young man in going over this course—viz., four years in the "theoretical," and one year in the "practical" class—though the average period of actual residence does not appear to exceed two years and a half or three years. There are periodical examinations at the end of every half-year, the second of which, by its results, determines whether the young man shall be allowed to go on to a commission, or be removed from the Academy.

The moral tone of this military college has never, we regret to say, been of a very high order. Excellent men have been at the head of it, and the ability of the professors and teachers appointed to instruct admits of no question. Yet few right-minded officers look back upon the years spent in the cadet barracks except with disgust. It is not very difficult to account for the circumstance. Long after Continental nations had seen the absurdity of pressing upon boys the sort of training which belongs to men, we refused to be guided by their experience, and persisted, both at Woolwich and elsewhere, in our endeavor to accomplish an impossibility. "Boys of fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen," says a very high authority on this subject, "require much personal supervision in order to form their characters, which young officers, very often appointed without any sufficient knowledge of their tempers and habits, cannot be expected to bestow. Such officers may indeed be able to superintend drill, but not moral training. Rarely do they draw the cadets towards them, and become their advisers; more frequently repel them by a harsh dictatorial manner, the cadet being in their eyes a soldier. There has been also, during all the time I have known the Academy, great inconsistency in treating the cadets. Honor is constantly

talked of, and yet doubts as to their truthfulness are not unfrequently expressed. I have heard even the lie given in rough and emphatic terms. Confidence is professedly placed, and yet offences are found out in a way that shows that no confidence existed. Hence a contest arises between the officer and cadet, and the latter becomes tricky and disingenuous."

In these emphatic words Colonel Portlock has struck at the root of most of the evil which has long been felt, and heretofore combated without success, in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. Whatever is wanting in the morale of that establishment, it owes to the original sin of its constitution. We know how to deal with boys so long as we recognize their boyhood, even while appealing to the point of honor among them. But we no sooner dress them up in uniform, and affect to treat them as soldiers, than we lose all moral control over them. They smoke, drink, swear, and fall into other vices, not because they are overcome by any irresistible temptation, but because they look upon such acts as tokens of manhood. And the corporals, who report readily enough for insubordination, and the officers, who punish for what they call military offences, take little heed of worse things; partly because, in a military point of view, they are scarcely criminal; partly because, not being regarded as such, they are seldom brought under the notice of the superior authorities. How a seminary so conducted and so managed should have given to the Artillery and Engineers a body of officers distinguished, as those of both arms unquestionably are for talent, intelligence, and gentlemanly bearing, would be inexplicable, were not the fact well known, that one of the first lessons taught to the young lieutenant, after quitting the Academy, is to throw off the habits which he had contracted there, and to adopt the high moral tone and excellent habits of his regiment.

It was partly with a view to provide a palliative for this admitted evil, partly to encourage in our young Artillery officers the habit of sustained study, that they were required, by a recent regulation, "to place themselves under the orders of a director of studies for half a year after obtaining their commissions. Meanwhile cadets who are appointed to the Engineers proceed to the training-school for that arm at Chatham; where they go through a somewhat careful course of surveying, and are instructed less elaborately in architecture, civil as well as military, and in mining, sapping, pontooning, and so forth. According to the report of the Commissioners, it does not appear that they reach their new field of instruction over and above well prepared to make the most of it. Indeed, the whole of the Woolwich system is by these gentlemen condemned in terms as decided as is consistent with good breeding.

II. It was not till the year 1804 that the propriety of training young men in ever so slight a degree for the service of the infantry and cavalry, seems to have occurred to any statesman or soldier in this country. Appointments to both arms took place for a time by purchase only, and by and by, when the numbers of the rank and file increased, through the weight of influence, personal, political, or social. Moreover, when the pressure of the great war was at its height, a third door of entrance to military rank was opened, and ensigncies and captaincies, and even lieutenant-colonelcies, became the prize of private gentlemen who were able to bring certain fixed contingents of able-bodied men under the royal standard. So far as the candidates for commissions themselves were concerned, however, the same even-handed justice was meted out to all. Nobody took the trouble to inquire whether the candidates were qualified morally, intellectually, or physically. He might be a pimp and blockhead, or lame, or deaf, or blind; but so long as his patron had the ear of the Government, or the men whom he brought with him were able to pass muster, his commission, whatever it might be, was secure.

The Military College at Sandhurst consisted at first, as it still consists, of two departments—one, called the Junior Department, for cadets—the other, the Senior Department, for officers desirous of qualifying for the Staff. But it had, in its original constitution, this marked advantage over the arrangement which has since been effected, that whereas now cadets and officers occupy portions of the same range of buildings, and come under the instruc-

tion of the same professors, they were, in 1804 placed, the one at Marlow, the other at Highwickam—each class of students having its own teachers, though both were subject to the control and management of the same military administration.

As first constituted, the junior department afforded both an asylum and a place of education for the sons of officers exclusively. Youths once admitted ceased to be a burden to their friends, except for the necessary expenses of travelling; they were housed, clothed, and educated at the public expense. But no sooner was the great war ended than Parliament began to slacken in its gratitude to the army, and by little and little the grants for military education fell off, till in the end they ceased altogether. As a necessary consequence, the numbers of persons seeking education at the Military College fell off in like manner. And now the junior department exhibits a muster-roll of 180 cadets only, while the strength of the senior department has dwindled to nine individuals. To be sure, other causes than the withdrawal of public support from the institution have operated to produce this latter result. Whatever it might have been forty years ago, the senior department at Sandhurst is certainly no Staff school now. Indeed, the only science effectively taught there seems to be mathematics; and it is a curious fact, that though the army abounds with officers who have passed through that school, and taken high honors, the instances are rare in which Staff appointments have fallen to the lot of any of them.

Lads are admitted into the junior department at Sandhurst between the ages of thirteen and fifteen. The preliminary examination is of the most trivial kind, and the instruction communicated is, for half the course, that of a common school not of the highest order. No doubt each youth may, if he be disposed, master more than the elements of a good deal of science; for over and above physical geography and history, instruction is given in practical astronomy, dynamics, and statics, practical mechanics, co-ordinate geometry, the differential and integral calculus, trigonometry and mensuration, Euclid's Geometry, attack and defence of fortresses, practical field-fortification, course of military surveying, the Latin, French, and German languages. Unfortunately, however, there is no compulsion to study, nor any inducement, unless the youth aspire to win for himself a commission without purchase.

III. The Hon. East India Company's College at Addiscombe approaches nearer in its constitution and objects to what a military school ought to be, than any other of which we can boast in this country. It came into existence in 1818, previously to which date the Directors were in the habit of sending to Woolwich, for instruction, youths to whom they had given cadetships in the Company's Artillery and Engineers. When first founded, it was intended as a place of training exclusively for these young gentlemen; but the benefits derived from it became so obvious and so great that the Court of Directors gradually enlarged its views, and now young men are educated at Addiscombe not only for the Company's Artillery and Engineers, but for their infantry also. And herein it is that the Directors have mixed up evil with good. They consider an Engineer cadetship as their great prize, and next to that a cadetship of Artillery; and they select for these appointments, not the youths who may have exhibited special talents for either arm, but the best men, or the men reported as generally best, of their batch. The consequence is, that to the infantry—for good service in which talent is as much required as for either the Artillery or Engineers—the idlers of the College are appointed, while many a clever lad, who would have shone as an infantry officer, becomes an indifferent engineer or gunner, simply because he has been posted to an arm for the practical operation of which he has no genius.

In all other respects the Military School at Addiscombe may be fairly said to surpass both Woolwich and Sandhurst. In the first place, youths enter there almost invariably at a more mature age. Though eligible for admission after completing their fifteenth year, they seldom, if ever, come up for examination till after they have turned seventeen. In the next place, the entrance examination is more severe than either at Woolwich or Sandhurst.

and in the third and last place—and this is the most important condition of the whole—cadets must complete their course at Addiscombe in two years, unless for special reasons, such as sickness, they be allowed to prolong their stay one half-year more. Now, lads may linger on at Woolwich four, and even five years, gaining this remarkable advantage from their stupidity, that when forced to compete at last for choice between Artillery and Engineers, they compete with youths who may have had but two years' training. And at Sandhurst, the course which nominally covers four years, may, if the youth have interest at headquarters, be completed, as far as his appointment to a commission completes it, in four months.

The general education given at Addiscombe is certainly not inferior to that which the cadets receive either at Woolwich or at Sandhurst. It embraces, indeed, almost entirely the same subjects which are set down in the curriculum of the others—including lectures in geology, chemistry, and artillery. But it undeniably falls short in specialties. Hence, after completing his course at Addiscombe, the Company's cadet intended for the Engineers proceeds to Chatham, where, side by side with young men from Woolwich, he receives practical instruction in his art. For the Artillery cadet, on the other hand, there is no practical school. Like his comrade intended for the service of the Infantry, he proceeds at once from Addiscombe to India, and learns there how to turn to account the theoretical lessons which have been communicated to him at home.

Another distinction deserves to be noted between the constitution of the school of Addiscombe, and that as well of the Royal Military College as of the Royal Military Academy: Though all alike put from them the eleemosynary element, at Addiscombe alone is strict impartiality in the matter of payments observed. The youth who enters there, whether he be the son of an earl or of a subaltern's widow, must be provided with his £100 a year, besides about £25 more to cover the cost of books, instruments, and uniforms. Both at Woolwich and Sandhurst there is a graduated scale, which exacts more from a general officer than from a subaltern, and more from a civilian than from either. The orphan of an officer dying in poor circumstances is admitted into Woolwich on payment of £20 a year. He pays for similar privileges at Sandhurst £40. The son of a gentleman in civil life pays in both cases £125, a sum more than necessary to cover the expenses of his own board and education, but which is exacted in order that there may be a surplus out of which the deficiencies occasioned by the payments of the sons of officers shall be made good.

Most important changes in the system of Military Education in England have been introduced since 1855, by Lord Panmure and the Council of Military Education, inaugurated under his auspices.

1. Admission to the various Military Schools is now gained by open competitive examination.
2. The order and method of studies, and all examinations for promotion, are governed by an independent Board of competent officers, and men of service, called the Council of Military Education.
3. The amount and order of studies in each school are minutely arranged, and each Professor is kept to the prescribed course by the supervision of a Master of Studies.
4. The development of the Staff School has given completeness to the system.

III. FRENCH VIEW OF ENGLISH MILITARY SCHOOLS.

M. Alphonse Esquiros, in the *Révue des Deux Mondes* of September 1860, contributes two articles on the military schools and institutions of England, from which we make a few extracts :

THE MILITARY SPIRIT AND PREPARATION OF ENGLAND.

On what foundation is the assertion based that England is only a first-class naval power? Although never numerous, have not the English soldiers sufficed for all the great eventualities of history? Has not the weight of their arms been felt for centuries past in the balance in which are weighed the destinies of the Continent? Each time that it was necessary to conquer, have they not conquered? I will not awaken irritating recollections. I will not mention the name of a great battle so painful to our national self-love; it will suffice to recall the fact, that recently, England, with a handful of men, has reconquered India. Instead of denying history, it were better to ask by what links the British character is connected with the group of martial nations. The Englishman is not warlike from inclination; he does not love war for war's sake, or maintain an army for the ruinous pleasure of seeing bayonets glitter and banners flaunt. He has an army to defend his territory, his commerce, the immense net-work of his external relations and possessions. Experience has more than once shown him the necessity of placing the pride of riches under the protection of courage. The Englishman has less enthusiasm than coolness. Immovable when attacked, he feels that the responsibility of the labor which has made England an opulent nation rests upon his arms. The military element, therefore, presents in Great Britain peculiar and interesting features. And then, quite recently, besides the regular army, a new independent army has arisen. Yesterday, it existed but as a project; to-day, it fills the towns with the blast of its clarions, passes review in Hyde Park and Holyrood, and covers the plains with the smoke of its skirmishers. I speak of the volunteers, or riflemen. We must investigate the origin of this movement, and the influence it has already exercised on English habits; but before busying ourselves with the army and volunteers, it will be well to study the military schools and arsenals.

REFORMS IN MILITARY EDUCATION AND PROMOTION IN 1856.

The delay and disasters of the operations before Sebastopol aroused the attention of the press and the people to the manner in which officers for the army were trained, appointed, and promoted. The Government was aroused by the emotions of the country, and in 1856, a commission was appointed by Lord Panmure, Secretary of War, to reorganize the education of the officers. That commission visited the different military schools of Great Britain, visited similar institutions in France, Prussia, Austria, and Sardinia, and collected all documents of a nature to enlighten its researches. Its report is a monument of science, and art, and impartiality. The authors of that investigation, Col. Yolland, Col. Mythe, and Mr. Lake, of the Oxford University, pointed out what reform ought to be made in the English system to raise the establishment of military education to the level of the inevitable progress claimed by the present age. They recommended a Council of Military Education, which, placed beyond and above the educating body, should direct the studies of the young men des-

trained for the army. From these various influences—the pressure of public opinion, the commission appointed in 1856 by the Government, and especially the Council of Military Education, arose those happy changes, which we shall endeavor to point out in the military institutions of Great Britain.

ROYAL MILITARY ACADEMY AT WOOLWICH.

Before 1855, the candidates were named by the master-general of ordnance; and although there was an entrance examination, the requisitions were very elementary, and no youth, influentially connected or recommended, was rejected. The results, although the institution furnished some good engineers and artillery officers to the English army, were not satisfactory. Since 1855, the system of appointment and instruction has been re-organized. Appointment on nomination has given place to open competition. A ministerial circular made an appeal to all candidates desirous of entering the academy without distinction of class, or party. Public examinations, thrown open to the youth of England, with independent examinations, succeeded the private examinations within the college walls. The axe was laid at the tree of privilege, and personal merit was substituted in its place.

The entrance examinations take place twice a year, at Chelsea Hospital—the home of disabled soldiers, and the school of orphan soldiers' children—in a large hall hung with the captured trophies and battle flags of different nations. The programme embraces mathematics, simple and practical; history, geography, and English literature; the Greek and Latin classics; the French language and literature; German, chemistry, and physics; mineralogy and geology; geometrical and landscape drawing. To each subject a certain numerical value is assigned. Each candidate is limited to five subjects, including mathematics, which he may select out of the programme, and on his obtaining an aggregate as well as relative number of marks depends his success. The results are made public, and the unsuccessful candidates are allowed another trial to fill succeeding vacancies. Then examinations exercise an indirect but elevating influence upon the schools of the country which send forth the candidates. Competition has put a check upon ignorance and mediocrity, no matter how well backed by social and political influence.

Another reform, not less important than that of competition, or the system of nominations, was that order of the minister of war, lengthening the age for the admission of candidates. That age was fixed between 16 and 20. The inconvenience of submitting young men too soon to military discipline has been recognized with great wisdom by Gen. Portlock.* "The character of adolescents exacts," he says, "a more delicate cultivation than that which must be expected from officers imbued with the command of a military school. In their eyes, no matter how young he is, the pupil is a soldier, and they treat him almost as one. Doubtless they excel in drilling him well; but do they possess the necessary qualities and experience for forming the morals of youth?" Another consequence of the early admissions was the introduction of a sort of confusion and uncertainty in the system of teaching. Now, a distinct line is drawn between the course of studies which precede and which follow admission to the academy. The conclusion was come to that a military academy formed a sort of line of demarcation in life between a good general education which ends, and a professional service which commences. The character, mind, manners of the candidate

* The Inspector of Studies at the Academy, now member of the Military Board of Education.

are supposed to be formed according to the usages of the world; he has reached that age when a man knows himself, and looks out for a career.

It is needless to dwell on the course of instruction, which is now nearly the same in all the great military schools of Europe. There are thirty-five professors, many of them eminent in their respective departments. One leading object, both of instruction and discipline, is to cultivate the habit of self-improvement and self-government. Physical sports are practiced and encouraged, and the cadets frequently challenge the officers of the garrison to a match of cricket.

An examination takes place every six months, in which the progress of each cadet is ascertained and reported. Those who pass through the series in good standing are promoted to a commission; the most distinguished to the engineer corps, and the others to the artillery. The appointment of these young officers gives rise to an interesting ceremony. The Duke of Cambridge, with a numerous staff, visits Woolwich Academy twice a year. All the cadets are present in review in front of the monument. It is pleasing to see how admirably they go through the manoeuvres. The duke then enters a hall where a *viva voce* examination takes place on the art of fortification. This over, the cadets form in square, and the duke then advances to the table where the prizes are laid out. These prizes consist of a sword of honor, telescopes, mathematical instruments, and books. The President of the Council of Education reads out the names of the cadets of the first class who are to receive commissions in the engineers and artillery. In conclusion, the Duke of Cambridge addresses some parental words to the young men who are about to leave the academy to enter the army. Such is a brief account of this academical festival, to which the brilliancy of the uniforms, the rank and names of the assistants, the happy emotions on the faces of the young men, impress a character of charm and solemnity.

MILITARY COLLEGE AT ADDISCOMBE.

Addiscombe was formerly the residence of the Earl of Liverpool, but was converted into a school at an expense of \$40,000, by the East India Company. Within a few years it has passed into the hands of the Government. One of the first acts of the Secretary of War and Council of Military Education was to inaugurate a system of admission (which was open by patronage of members of the company) by competitive examination, and which has been attended with the happiest results. After passing a year at Addiscombe, the cadets enter according to merit (ascertained by examination) and either enter the engineers, artillery, or line service. The India service will always remain distinct and sought after; that life of adventures, encampments in the jungles, tiger hunts, the attraction of struggles against man and nature, the dazzling figures of a world shining in the east through the fogs of Great Britain, all this responds to one feature of the English character, the love of adventure.

ROYAL COLLEGE OF SANDHURST.

Here are two distinct institutions—the college, which is a preparatory school for infantry and cavalry officers, and the *senior department*, or staff school. The scholars of the last department, who have already gone through the competitive examination, are commissioned officers; they have even served a certain number of years in the army; some of them have gone through the Crimean war and the Indian campaign. In 1859, one of these officers had received eighteen

or nineteen wounds, which had deprived him of one of his eyes. I was surprised at finding among them candidates for staff appointments who could write and speak French in a manner that would have done honor to a French officer.

The English find it an advantage to admit young officers of talent and energy into the higher branches of the service. To the experience of their profession, their picked soldiers add knowledge already acquired, which a second course of education develops and consolidates. It must, however, be admitted that it requires a certain moral strength to return, after having held a command, to the benches of a school, to follow various studies, and to submit to strict examinations, which exclude all ideas of promotion and favor, fortune or birth.

In an economical point of view, these two institutions, Woolwich and Sandhurst, cover their own expenses without any cost to the State. This fact, which was by no means foreseen, is owing to two measures relatively of recent date—the gradual withdrawal of subsidies formerly granted by Parliament, and the accession of the sons of rich men not belonging to the army; these latter pay a high premium, and thus contribute towards the education of the other cadets, who, being sons of officers, enjoy certain immunities. In England, it is thought equitable that the services of the father should be counted in favor of the son; according to this principle, the debt contracted by the country towards military men is paid to their sons by civilians.

Young men who have not passed through Sandhurst may, nevertheless, be admitted as officers into the line or cavalry, but on the condition of undergoing an examination and *purchasing* their commissions. This purchasing of direct commissions is doubtless detrimental to Sandhurst College. The abolition of the system has often been mooted. The Duke of Cambridge approves of the abolition, as does the Minister of War, and wishes that no officer shall be admitted into the English army except from a military college.

COUNCIL OF MILITARY EDUCATION.

So far we only behold the members of a great system. There is unity in the Council of Military Education, which to a certain extent is the head of instruction. The influence of their council, which consists of eminent men, is felt in the different schools, introduces changes and useful reforms, directs the public examinations—in a word, gives the impulse to the military studies of the United Kingdom. The civil and religious element is represented therein by one of the most learned men of England (the Rev. Henry Mosley, canon.) The other members are generals and colonels belonging to different corps of the army.

Thus it will be seen that England enjoys a system of military education which will bear comparison with that of any other nation in Europe. The chief purposes of this system are a good general instruction up to the age of sixteen or nineteen years, then a short military instruction, then, after some years of service, a final course of studies in the senior department or staff college. It must not, however, be supposed that the present state of things, though happily modified by the recent principle of competition, is the extreme limit of progress. In the name of liberty, I am too anxious that Great Britain should maintain her position in the world, to pay a full compliment to her self-esteem and ensumber her aspirations for reform. She has done much in these latter times; but there is still much to be done, and she is aware of it, to raise the moral power of her officers to the level of modern times, where enlightenment pervades every class of society.

X. THE AMERICAN LYCEUM.

THE first quarter of the present century was marked by a constantly increasing energy in the working of the leaven of educational improvement. Towards the end of that period, and during the succeeding decade, the ferment wrought so actively as to generate a numerous, heterogeneous brood of systems, plans, and institutions—many crude and rudely organized; many that never reached an organization; many that did their work quickly and well; few that have survived in any form till the present time. Of all these, whether under the names of school systems (Infant, Free, Monitorial, Manual labor, Agricultural, etc.,) or of Mechanics' Institutions, Lyceums, Societies for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, Mercantile Associations, Teachers' Seminaries, Teachers' Associations, Literary Institutes, Societies of Education, School Agents' Societies, Library Associations, Book Clubs, Reading Associations, Educational Journals, &c., &c., none created so immediate and general interest, or excited for a time an influence so great or beneficent as

THE AMERICAN LYCEUM.

Although, as a national institution, it did not become organized until 1831, yet, as it was the growth mainly of a single mind, and as the form which it took throughout was in most points indicated in the original draft of the institution as given by Josiah Holbrook* in a communication to the American Journal of Education, in Oct., 1826, its existence should in reality date from the organization of the first Town Lyceum, at Millbury, Mass., under the name of the "Millbury Branch, No. 1, of the American Lyceum." The article mentioned† shows that Mr. Holbrook had already given mature thought to the subject, and had already assisted in the formation of several societies modeled upon a similar plan. But these had not assumed the name of "Lyceum," and it is not certainly known where

* For Memoir of Josiah Holbrook, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, vol. viii., p. 126—256.

† This article is republished in Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. viii., page 230.

they were located. The Millbury Branch was established in Nov. 1826, and the example was promptly followed by twelve or fifteen other towns in the vicinity, and these in accordance with Mr. Holbrook's plan, united by delegates in forming the "Worcester County Lyceum." During the same season, through his efforts, actively aided by the Rev. S. J. May, the Lyceum of Windham County, Ct., and several subordinate town societies were organized. To the development of his system, Mr. Holbrook now devoted all his efforts, delivering courses of lectures in different sections of the country; distributing circulars and publishing articles in the journals, explaining the object of the lyceum; making and exchanging collections of geological specimens, and establishing a manufactory of simple philosophical apparatus—all in immediate connection with the extension of the lyceum system.

His plan was, as given in a circular of May, 1828, to establish on a uniform plan, in every town and village, a society for mutual improvement and the improvement of schools, supplied with books, particularly a juvenile library, and with a sufficient philosophical apparatus, geological and mineralogical cabinets, &c., and holding frequent meetings for exercises in the form of lectures, debates, conversation, or experiment upon subjects of practical science and useful knowledge; to have all the societies in a county united by a board of delegates, which should be a board of education for the county, and auxiliary to a general one for the State—the general board to consist of delegates from the several county boards; and to have published under the patronage of the general board, a periodical journal, pamphlets, and tracts, of such a character as to diffuse intelligence and promote general activity throughout the society and the community. He also had in view a connection of the several State boards, acting under legislative authority, hoping thus to secure a general system of popular education that should be marked by uniformity, symmetry, energy, and effect.

In October, 1828, some fifty or sixty branches of the American Lyceum had already been organized. On November 7th, of the same year, a public meeting was held in Boston to consider the claims of the system, of which Daniel Webster was chairman, and G. B. Emerson, secretary. A resolution was passed to the effect that the American Lyceum comprehended the chief objects of a general association for popular improvement, and for the aid and advancement of common education in primary and other schools. Adjourned meetings were held, over which Edward Everett and Charles Lowell presided, and a committee was appointed, consisting

of Messrs. W. Russell, J. Holbrook, G. B. Emerson, Rev. Asa Rand, and Dr. Robbins, who reported in full and favorably upon the subject; and were continued, to report upon the expediency of establishing a lyceum in Boston. This resulted in the formation of the "Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge." The "Boston Lyceum" was, however, organized at a later period, and went into successful operation. In the succeeding year, 1829, branches had been formed in nearly every State in the Union, and a deep and generous interest had arisen upon the subject in every portion of the country, particularly at the South. "In two instances it received the patronage of States, with a view to make it a Board of Education and a means to extend the usefulness of schools."

In February, 1829, a meeting was held in the Representatives' Hall, Boston, consisting of members of the Legislature, and other gentlemen, and presided over by the Hon. Mr. Dennie, of Leicester, to consult "upon the state of education in the commonwealth, and on those associations for promoting it, denominated lyceums." It was resolved "that we regard the formation and success of lyceums as calculated to exert a conspicuous influence upon the interests of popular education, and of literature and science generally," and "that it be recommended to the school-teachers in the several towns to connect themselves with lyceums, and form a distinct class or division for their appropriate pursuits." A committee was appointed to collect information respecting lyceums and report to the next similar meeting. This was held on February 19, 1830, Gov. Lincoln presiding. Rev. Asa Rand at that time reported, in behalf of the State Committee, and county committees were appointed to promote the formation of county lyceums, in order to the speedy establishment of a state society: A central, or State committee was also chosen, consisting of Messrs. A. H. Everett, A. Rand, J. Bowdoin, J. C. Merrill, J. P. Bigelow, E. Bailey, J. Walker, J. H. Ashmun, H. Mann, and W. Lovering, who issued circulars advising the establishment of town and county lyceums, the formation of associations of teachers as branches of lyceums, the introduction of the infant school system into common schools, and the surveys of towns, and the construction of maps. The number of town lyceums in the State, as reported, was seventy-eight, with county lyceums in Worcester, Essex, and Middlesex counties.

This State Committee also issued the call for a meeting, which was held in Boston, in March, 1830, and which resulted in the formation of the "American Institute of Instruction."^{*} The Massa

^{*} See Barnard's American Journal of Education. Vol. II, p. 19.

chusetts State Lyceum was organized February 25, 1831, Hon. A. H. Everett, president.

In New York, a State Convention of the friends of education was held at Utica on January 13th, 1831, with delegates from twenty-two counties; Rev. Pres. Davis, of Hamilton College, presiding. After addresses by Mr. Holbrook and Gov. Yates, the convention resolved itself into a State lyceum, and appointed Mr. Holbrook their agent to visit the several counties of the State and organize county lyceums. Their most important action, however, was the calling a national convention of the friends of education, to meet in New York in the following May.

The Florida Education Society, arranged upon substantially the same plan as a State lyceum, was organized at Tallahassee, June 23, 1831.

CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN LYCEUM.

In accordance with the above-mentioned call of the New York State Lyceum, a convention met in New York, May 4, 1831, for the formation of a national lyceum, with (23) delegates present, as follows:

From the New York State Lyceum—A. J. Yates, J. Griscom, A. Eaton, T. Clowes.

From the State Lyceum of Maine—J. Neal, G. Mellen, J. D. Kinsman.

From the Mass. State Lyceum—J. Holbrook, J. Allen, E. Emerson, C. Dewey.

From Yale College—D. Olmsted, Mr. (F. A. P.) Barnard.

From Washington Co., N. Y.—A. Proudfit, B. Blair, J. W. Proudfit.

From the Lansingburgh Lyceum—H. G. Spafford.

From the Village of Brooklyn, N. Y.—T. Eames, J. L. Van Doren, A. Hayman, G. Freeman, N. Sargent.

From Dickinson College and the Citizens of Carlisle, Pa.—Henry Duffield—and other friends of education.

The Convention thereupon was organized by the election of Alex. Proudfit, D. D., of Salem, N. Y., as president, and John Neal, of Portland, Me., and A. J. Yates, of Chittenango, N. Y., as secretaries. Messrs. Griscom, Holbrook, Yates, Olmsted, and Sargent, as committee of arrangements, reported a constitution, which, after considerable discussion, was adopted as given below. The principal objects intended to be secured were a representation from every section of the Union; a collection of facts relating to the condition and wants of schools; the providing and execution of meas-

ures for supplying their wants, and the introduction of a uniform and improved system of education throughout the country.

CONSTITUTION.

ART. I. The Society shall be called the American Lyceum.

ART. II. The objects of the Lyceum shall be the advancement of education, especially common schools, and the general diffusion of knowledge.

ART. III. The members of the American Lyceum shall consist as follows:—
1st. Of delegates from State, territory, and district lyceums, which are or may be formed, the number of which delegates shall not exceed half the number of members from said State, territory, or district in the national Congress; and where an uneven number of congressional representatives is allowed, the fraction shall be construed in favor of such State, territory, or district; but no State, territory, or district shall be restricted to less than three members. 2d. Of persons appointed by the executive committee of the National Lyceum, from those States, territories, or districts where no general lyceum exists, or where no notice of delegations from those lyceums shall have been received by the executive committee at least three months previous to the time of holding the annual meeting of the American Lyceum, under the same limitation of numbers as in the case of delegates from lyceums. 3d. Of persons invited by said executive committee to attend said annual meeting from various parts of the United States, but who shall not be admitted to the privilege of voting for the election of officers, or any measure connected with the internal policy of the Lyceum.

ART. IV. The officers of the Lyceum shall be a president, five vice-presidents, a recording secretary, as many corresponding secretaries as the Lyceum, at any of its annual meetings, shall deem necessary, and a treasurer, who with five other persons, shall constitute an executive committee to transact any business for the benefit of the Lyceum, to be appointed by ballot at each annual meeting, and to hold their offices until others are appointed in their stead.

ART. V. The Lyceum shall hold an annual meeting in the city of New York on the Friday next succeeding the first Thursday in May.

ART. VI. Three persons shall form a quorum of the Executive Committee, which shall hold its meetings in the city of New York, and shall be empowered to add others to its number.

ART. VII. This constitution may be altered and amended by vote of two-thirds of the delegates present, at any annual meeting.

Upon adoption of the constitution, the following persons were elected officers of the American Lyceum:

President—Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer, Albany, N. Y.

Vice-Presidents—Dr. Alex. Proudfit, Prof. John Griscom, N. Y.; Rob. Vaux, Phila.; E. Everett; Thos. S. Grimke, S. C.

Recording Secretary—Nathan Sargent, N. Y.

Corresponding Secretaries—T. Dwight, Jr., N. Y.; S. B. How, Pres. of Dickinson College, Pa.; Prof. A. J. Yates; J. Holbrook; J. Neal; O. A. Shaw, Richmond, Va.; Rev. B. O. Peers, Lexington, Ky.

Additional Committee—Prof. D. Olmsted; S. W. Seton, N. Y.; W. Forest, N. Y.; D. Russell, Salem, N. Y.; S. P. Staples; G. P. Disoway; Goold Brown, N. Y.; W. B. Kinney; Dr. S. H. Pennington, Newark, N. J.; J. T. Halsey, Elizabethtown, N. J.

Treasurer—J. D. Steele, N. Y.

An interesting discussion followed upon the subject of natural history and the Bible as essential elements in early and general education; consideration was also given to the necessary qualifications of teachers; the nature, operations, results, and prospects of

lyceums, and the procuring of town and county maps; and the following questions were discussed at length:

"To what extent can the natural sciences be advantageously introduced into Common Schools?"

"What are the greatest desiderata for the improvement of Common Schools?"

The society also adopted the following *resolutions*:

"That, in the judgment of this lyceum, a portion of the Scriptures ought to be daily read in each common school, and this exercise is hereby respectfully recommended.

That, in the opinion of this Lyceum, the weekly meetings of teachers in towns, and the semi-annual conventions of teachers in counties under the direction and aid of town and county lyceums, are eminently calculated to improve the qualifications of teachers and advance the interests of schools.

That this Lyceum consider the establishment of seminaries for the education of teachers a most important part of any system of public instruction.

That we regard the school-teachers of our country as a body on whom the future character and stability of our institutions chiefly depend; that they are therefore entitled to our highest consideration; and that, whatever may be their faults or deficiencies, the remedy for both is in the hands of society at large.

That the Executive Committee be directed to adopt such measures as they shall deem expedient to encourage the institution of lyceums in the several States of the Union, where they do not already exist.

That the American Lyceum recommend to town and county lyceums, which are or may be founded, to coöperate in procuring town and county maps, embracing geography, geology, and as much of agriculture and statistics as may be found practicable."

A letter was read from W. C. Woodbridge, presenting a set of the "*Annals of Education*," and also offering that work as a channel of publication for the notices and proceedings of the Lyceum. It was accordingly

"*Resolved*, That the '*American Annals of Education*,' published in Boston, and the '*Magazine of Useful Knowledge*,' published in the city of New York, be adopted as the organs of publication for the proceedings of the Lyceum."

The following by-laws were adopted:

BY-LAWS.

I. The Recording Secretary shall provide a suitable place for depositing books, specimens, and other property belonging to the society; a place for the regular meetings; and give early and public notice thereof.

II. Every Corresponding Secretary shall have a particular department assigned to him, and the following are hereby appointed to those appointed:

S. B. How—*On Colleges and their Connection with Common Schools.*

J. Holbrook—*On Books, Apparatus, and Branches of Study.*

B. O. Peers—*On Legislative Provisions for Schools.*

A. J. Yates—*On the Qualifications of Teachers.*

T. Dwight, Jr.—*On Lyceums.*

O. A. Shaw—*On the Natural Sciences.*

J. Neal—*On Methods of Instruction and School Discipline.*

III. The Corresponding Secretaries will make reports in their respective departments, and furnish the Recording Secretary with all documents relating thereto, and belonging to the society.

IV. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee, or any three of their number, to invite persons from different parts of the United States to address the Lyceum, at the annual meeting, on such topics as they may prescribe to them.

V. It shall be the duty of every member of the Executive Committee to forward the general objects of the Lyceum in that section of the country to which he belongs.

VI. Adopts Jefferson's Manual to govern proceedings.

During the following year, the Executive Committee, through its Chairman, John Griscom, issued circulars, which were widely spread through the country, calling attention to the nature and objects of the lyceum; and the following gentlemen, among others, were invited to prepare addresses for the next meeting:—Messrs. Gallaudet, W. R. Johnson, R. Vaux, G. W. Gale, Holbrook, Peers, Griscom, Olmsted, E. Everett, Grimke, Keagy, Yates, Dewey, W. Irving, Frelinghuysen, and Miss C. E. Beecher.

In the meantime, through the exertions of Mr. Holbrook, who spent some months of the Fall and winter in visiting several of the Western and Southern States, the Tennessee State Lyceum was organized at Nashville, in October, 1831, Rev. P. Lindsley being president. The Illinois State Lyceum was also organized at Vandalia in December.

Nor less than eight hundred or a thousand town lyceums, and fifty or sixty county societies had been reported to the convention as already in existence at the time of its meeting.

THE SECOND ANNUAL MEETING convened at New York, May 4, 1832, with (55) delegates present from the State Lyceums of Massachusetts, New York, and Illinois; from the Buffalo, Utica, and Marietta Lyceums; from Yale College, N. Y. City University, N. Y. Young Men's Society, N. Y. Mechanics' Society, Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum, and the Goodrich Association of Hartford. J. Griscom, 2d Vice-President, was appointed to the chair, and W. B. Kinney, Secretary. There were also present representatives, by invitation, from Spain, Mexico, Venezuela, and the State of Alabama.

The following persons were elected officers of the Society for the ensuing year:

President—J. Griscom, LL.D.

Vice-Presidents—A. Proudfit, D. D.; R. Vaux, E. Everett, T. S. Grimke, P. Lindsley, D. D.

Recording Secretary—W. B. Kinney.

Treasurer—J. D. Steele.

Corresponding Secretaries—T. Dwight, Jr.; J. L. Comstock, M. D.; J. Holbrook, Rev. T. Flint, Cincinnati; Prof. J. M. Sturtevant, Prof. P. Cleveland, Maine; Rev. B. O. Peers, Ky.; T. P. Jones, M. D., D. C.; Prof. A. Eaton, M. D., N. Y.; A. Wood, D. D., Alabama.

Additional Committee—Prof. Olmsted, S. W. Seton, N. Y.; W. Forrest, N. Y.; S. H. Pennington, M. D., Newark; S. P. Staples, N. Y.

The report of the Executive Committee having been accepted, a committee was appointed to devise means for the provision of funds needed to advance the objects of the lyceum. They reported an amendment to the constitution, which was adopted, as follows:

ART. VIII. Any person may become a life director upon paying into the treasury the sum of \$100; a life member upon the like payment of \$20; an annual member, with the approbation of the executive committee, upon the yearly payment of \$3.

A report was read by T. Dwight, Jr., Corresponding Secretary upon Lyceums in the United States, and kindred societies in the republics of South America. Communications were also received, giving the character and operations of the Young Men's Society of New York, (ordered to be published with the proceedings,) the Newark Mechanics' Institute and Lyceum, the Oneida Institute, the Franklin Institution of New Haven, and the Goodrich Association of Hartford—and verbal reports from delegates respecting the Marietta, Cincinnati, Worcester, and other lyceums with which they were connected.

Essays were received and read from the following gentlemen, viz.:—Prof. GRISCOM, on *School Discipline*;* T. FREELINGHUYSEN, on the *Importance of making the Constitution and Political Institutions of the United States subjects of Education in Common Schools, Academies, etc.*; Prof. PIZARRO, on *Primary Education in Spain*; Prof. DEWEY, on the *Introduction of the Natural Sciences into Common Schools*; Dr. WEEKS, on *Learning to Read and Write the English Language*; Dr. KEAGY, on *Infant Education*; W. R. JOHNSON, on the *extent to which the Monitorial System is advisable and practicable in Common Schools*; T. S. GRIMKE, on the *appropriate use of the Bible in Common Education*.

Resolutions were passed, recommending a continuance of the correspondence with the institutions of South America and adjoining States; urging the friends of public intelligence and good order to establish, promote, and countenance lyceums in their respective neighborhoods and States; directing the executive committee to make arrangements for a monthly publication as soon as practicable; recommending to patronage the "Annals of Education;" returning thanks to Mr. Seton, Public School visitor, for an opportunity of witnessing an exhibition of pupils from the public schools; accepting with thanks the offer of Mr. Woodbridge, senior editor of the "Annals of Education," for his proposition, in addition to the generous publication of the communications of the lyceum, to permit the lyceum to strike off additional copies for their own use, with no other expense than that of press-work and paper; and finally, on motion of Mr. Woodbridge—

Resolved, 1. That the information presented to the lyceum at the present meeting furnishes abundant evidence of the ability of lyceums and other similar institutions in elevating the intellectual and moral character, in softening the asperities of party feeling, and promoting union and energy in other public objects, and that they may be made to contribute materially to the improvement of common schools.

2. That it be recommended to every town and village of our country to form a social institution of this kind; and that the executive committee be requested to make this a special object of attention during the current year.

* Published.

3. That naturalists and men of experience in science and the arts be respectfully requested to aid the lyceum in naming the subjects of natural history, and in giving instruction, and in the use of instruments and apparatus.

The THIRD ANNUAL MEETING was opened at New York on the 3d of May, 1833, and was organized by the appointment of W. A. Duer, President of Columbia College, as president, and G. P. Disosway, secretary *pro tem*. Delegates and members, seventy-five in number, were present from the State Lyceums of Massachusetts and New Hampshire; from the Lyceums of Boston, Orange, Conn., Ontario County, N. Y., Morris County, N. J., Trenton, N. J., Buffalo, N. Y., and Alton, Ill.; from the Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum; Washington College, Hartford; Andover Convention of Teachers; New York Historical Society; New York Athenæum; General Society of the Mechanics and Tradesmen of New York; New York Mercantile Library Association; New York Young Men's Society; Philadelphia Association of Teachers; New York Institute for the Blind; Goodrich Association, Hartford; Franklin Institute, Ithaca, N. Y.; American School Agents' Society; and others as officers of the society, or as invited members.

The following persons were elected as officers for the ensuing year:

President, W. A. DUER, President of Columbia College; *Vice-Presidents*, those of the previous year continued in office; *Recording Secretary*, W. B. KINNEY; *Treasurer*, W. FORREST, N. Y.; *Corresponding Secretaries*, Prof. J. GRISCOM, Providence, R. I.; and Pres. CUSHING, Hampden Sidney College, Va., in addition to those of the last year; *Additional Committee*, Prof. OLMSTED; J. D. STEELE, N. Y.; S. H. PENNINGTON, M. D., Newark, N. J.; S. P. STAPLES, N. Y.; Prof. J. DURBIN, N. Y.; A. P. HALSEY, N. Y.; JAMES DONALDSON, N. Y.; Prof. MCVICKER, Columbia College; Prof. J. RENWICK, N. Y.; W. B. LAWRENCE, N. Y.; Prof. VETHAKE, New York University; J. D. RUSS, M. D., New York.

The Executive Committee, through their Secretary, reported that during the year they had been deprived of the services of the President and other members by their resignations; that they had issued circulars and letters to various local lyceums and friends of learning, inviting essays upon subjects of general importance; and that they had commenced measures for the collection of a cabinet of natural history.

The Corresponding Secretary on Lyceums reported the distribution of from 100 to 400 of the several numbers of the published proceedings of the last meeting, and generally upon the progress of the lyceum system of popular education in the United States and Southern Republics.

Reports were also received from delegates respecting lyceums and

education in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Kentucky, and Virginia; and from G. W. Light in relation to the Boston Lyceum, and the Boston Young Men's Society, which last were published in the proceedings of the lyceum.

The formation of *Cabinets of Natural History* was made the subject of discussion, and it was

Resolved, That this Lyceum recommend to all the lyceums and schools in the country to procure cabinets of natural history for themselves, and to coöperate in furnishing a national cabinet in the city of New York, and that the Executive Committee be requested to procure a place of deposit for the cabinet, and otherwise to aid the enterprise.

The subject of *Manual Labor Schools* was also introduced, and after a discussion of considerable length, was referred to a committee consisting of Mr. Woodbridge and others, who reported the following resolutions:

1. That no system of education is complete which does not provide for the vigor of the body, as well as the cultivation of the mind and the purity of the heart.
2. That the combination of manual labor with study is not only important as the means of promoting health, but that it is also calculated to invigorate the mind for intellectual labor, and to aid in regulating the feelings and restraining the passions of youth, which are so often excited by a sedentary life.
3. That the acquisition of some mechanical employment in early life is desirable to every individual, as a means of relaxation and health, as a resource in case of difficulty, and especially as a means of rendering labor respectable in the eyes of all, and of promoting mutual regard and sympathy between the different portions of society in a republican government.
4. That in view of these facts, the Lyceum earnestly recommend to parents, to secure the benefits of manual labor to their children from the earliest period practicable, as a part of domestic education.
5. That the introduction of manual labor in those institutions for education in which children are separated from their parents, would be of essential benefit to the wealthy in promoting health and improvement; and to the indigent in enabling them to procure an education at an expense greatly reduced; and that the Lyceum regard the establishment of such schools as an important and desirable branch of a system of national education for our country.

Resolutions were also adopted, recommending to county and town lyceums, the formation of State lyceums in those States where none already existed; requesting President Duer to draw up and publish the outlines of the constitutional jurisprudence of the United States as a text-book for teachers and for scholars; amending the constitution so as to extend the number of the additional members of the executive committee to twenty; recommending to all lyceums and schools regular contributions, either in money or effort, in favor of some benevolent object; presenting the thanks of the Lyceum to Mr. Woodbridge for his attention and liberality in regard to the publication of the proceedings of the last meeting, under the embarrassing circumstances produced by the failure of the plan then pro-

posed for the collection of funds, and requesting him to continue to publish the proceedings in the "Annals." Recommending to the attention and support of lyceums and schools the "Annals of Education," and also the "Family Lyceum," published by Mr. Holbrook. Recommending the labors of J. J. Audubon, and his work on ornithology to all friends of useful knowledge. *Special Committees* were also appointed, to report a uniform plan for meteorological observations, to be recommended to lyceums and schools in all parts of the country; to inquire whether the study of the Greek language is commenced at a proper age, and pursued on the best plan; to visit the new primary schools in New York city and report; for foreign correspondence, to collect information in relation to education.

Essays and communications were read or received, as follows:—From G. P. Macculloch, *on the General Principles of Instruction*; * Dr. Comstock, *on Geology*; E. James, M. D., *on the Chippewa Language*; * Dr. J. D. Russ, *respecting Apparatus and Methods for the Instruction of the Blind*; W. C. Woodbridge, *on Vocal Music as a Branch of Common Education*; * from Juan Rodriguez, of Mexico, *on the state of Education in Mexico*; W. A. Alcott, *on the study of Physiology as a branch of General Education*.

After the reading of the last essay, the following resolutions were, on motion of Mr. Woodbridge, adopted:

"That the study of Physiology ought to form a part of the course of education wherever it is practicable.

That a premium of \$300 be offered for the best text book on Physiology for the use of schools, presented before March 1, 1834, to be published under direction of the Lyceum.

That the Executive Committee select four persons, one from each of the professions of medicine, law, theology, and education, to examine and decide on the works presented."

The FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING opened in New York, May 2, 1834, President Duer in the chair, and W. B. Kinney, Secretary. There were present (64) delegates and members from the Massachusetts and New Jersey State Lyceums; Essex county Lyceum, N. J.; the Lyceums of Brooklyn, N. Y., Nottingham; N. J., Orange, N. J., Washington city, D. C.; the Naval and Hamilton Lyceums of Brooklyn; from Yale College, Wesleyan University, University of Georgia, Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum, New York Lyceum of Natural History, Albany Young Men's Society, New York Literary and Philosophical Society, and others.

The officers of the last year were reelected, with the substitution of Messrs. Judge Clayton, of Georgia, W. C. Woodbridge, and W. B. Calhoun, Springfield, Mass., for Messrs. Flint, Cleaveland, and Eaton, as Corresponding Secretaries; and of Messrs. Dr. Torrey, Dr. L. D. Gale, Dr. J. Van Rensselaer, Rev. D. I. Carroll, of Brook-

lyn, and R. G. Rankin, for Messrs. Steele, Staples, Durbin, McViekar, and Lawrence, upon the Executive Committee.

Reports on lyceums and schools were presented by several gentlemen, Mr. Calhoun making a detailed statement respecting the lyceums, schools, and academies of Massachusetts; Dr. Weeks, a full account of the formation of the New Jersey State Lyceum on April 8, 1834; and Judge Clayton, an account of the state of education, and of thirteen new lyceums in Georgia.

Discussions were held upon the following questions:

1. Is the establishment of a central school for teachers desirable in the United States, and on what plan should it be founded?
2. Is the monitorial system in any form or degree appropriate to our common schools?

In the discussion of the latter question, S. W. Seton, agent of the trustees of the New York Common Schools, communicated at length his views upon the subject of the monitorial system.

Essays and communications were read as follows:—From Mrs. L. H. Sigourney, *on raising the standard of Female Education*;* Lorenzo de Zavala, Minister Plenipotentiary from Mexico to France, *on Education*;* H. R. Schoolcraft, *on the means for promoting Civilization and Education among the Western Indians*;* Juan Rodriguez, member of the Mexican Congress, *on Education in Mexico*;* Augustus Yakonbusky, a young Polish exile, *on Education and Literature in Poland*; Justo Velor, Rector of Havana College, *on the higher branches of Education in Cuba*; Joaquin Mosquera, Vice-President of New Granada, *upon the progress of Education in that republic*.

Resolutions were passed, altering the plan authorized at the last meeting, relating to a text-book upon Physiology, and extending the time allowed therefor; returning thanks to President Duer for his book upon constitutional jurisprudence, published at the expense of the society; returning thanks to Mr. Woodbridge for his attention and liberality in the publication of the proceedings of the last meeting, and requesting him to continue to publish the proceedings in the "Annals;" requesting all lyceums to unite as branches with this society, and be represented in its annual meetings; and, in failure thereof, to make report of their condition, in order that the objects of the society and its associate societies may be promoted and their benefits more generally diffused; requesting the Executive Committee to organize classes, or departments, for the promotion of moral, political, and physical science; that each class, or department, be empowered to call to its aid such scientific gentlemen as they may think proper; and that a similar department of literature and the arts be organized under the same regulations.

Committees were appointed to conduct a correspondence with persons whose attention has been particularly directed to the business

* Published.

of instruction, to collect information, and otherwise to promote the establishment of a central seminary for the education of common school teachers; to collect information on the best plan for conducting and rendering interesting and attractive the proceedings of local lyceums; to produce an essay upon the monitorial system as appropriate to common schools; to propose some plan for raising funds for defraying necessary expenses.

In accordance with the report of this committee, Messrs. Carroll, Gale, and Renwick were appointed a committee to prepare an address to the public, and to make arrangements for a public meeting, in order that the nature, operations, and objects of the Lyceum might be brought prominently forward before the public, and that their personal application be made as extensively as possible for subscriptions or contributions to the funds of the society.

THE FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in New York, May 8, 1835, President Duer in the chair, and R. G. Rankin, Secretary *pro tem*. At the election of officers for the ensuing year, all the surviving officers were reelected. The vacancy caused by the death of T. S. Grimke was filled by the appointment of P. W. Radcliffe, of Brooklyn.

Fifty delegates and members were present from the following lyceums and societies:—The Massachusetts Lyceum, New York city Lyceum, United States Naval Lyceum, Brooklyn Lyceum, New Bedford Lyceum, Hempstead Lyceum, Yale College, Hamilton Library Association of Brooklyn, and the Newark Young Men's Society; several invited members were also present.

The report of the Corresponding Secretary on lyceums, gave full and complete information respecting the operations and designs of the Society, and was published, together with extracts from the foreign correspondence of the Lyceum. Reports were made by delegates present, or by letter, respecting various lyceums in the States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey. Rev. Charles Stewart read an interesting report upon the United States Naval Lyceum, at Brooklyn, which was published. Reports were also received from the committees appointed at the last meeting to inquire respecting "the study of the Greek Language," and "the Monitorial System." Letters were read from H. R. Schoolcraft, P. S. Duponceau, J. Pickering, President Fisk, President Wayland, A. H. Everett, Miss C. E. Beecher, Charles Frazer, and J. C. Neagle.

Essays and communications were received as follows,—From Miss C. E. Beecher, on the *Education of Female Teachers*;* Dr. J. D. Russ, on *Books and Apparatus for the Blind*; Constantine Oscanean, on the *History and Condition of Education in Armenia*;* E. Loomis, Rushville, N. Y., on the *Ojipue Spelling*

* Published.

Book; * W. S. Cooley, on the *Invention of the Cherokee Alphabet*; * T. Dwight Jr., on the *Sereculchs, in Nigritia, with a Vocabulary*; * A Member of the Executive Committee, on a newly discovered group of Islands in the Pacific, with a *Vocabulary of the Unlapi Language*; C. Frazer, Charleston, S. C., on the *Condition and Prospects of Painting in the United States*; * W. Dunlap, N. Y., on the *Influence of the Arts of Design, and the true modes of encouraging them*; * T. Cole, N. Y., on *American Scenery*. *

Resolutions were adopted, that the subject of female education deserves more attention than it has yet received; that the establishment and liberal endowment of female seminaries of a high order, especially for the education of female teachers, is highly deserving of the benefactions of the intelligent and wealthy of the community, as well as of legislative patronage, and recommending the extended circulation of Miss Beecher's essay on the education of female teachers; requesting the executive committee to select such of the communications made to the Society, as they may deem generally interesting and useful, and to publish the same under the title of "Transactions of the American Lyceum;" returning thanks to W. C. Woodbridge for the donation of two hundred copies of his review of the "Address of the Literary and Philosophical Society of South Carolina, to the people of that State, on Lyceums;" instructing the Executive Committee to promote the formation of ward or district lyceums in the city of New York, so far as their aid may be desired; affirming that lyceums afford a cheap and agreeable means of intellectual and moral improvement, promoting the development of latent talent, and tending to cultivate taste and the useful arts, and that the investment of money for their establishment has proved of solid advantage to the wealth, as well as the habits and enjoyments of communities; expressing satisfaction at the reported increase of lyceums in Southern States, inviting them to coöperate with each other and this Society for the promotion of knowledge, and authorizing the Executive Committee to call a special meeting of the American Lyceum at such time as may seem most convenient to the friends of lyceums at the South; approving of the operations of the "American Institute of Instruction," and appointing a committee to attend the next annual meeting of that Society; expressing sympathy with the efforts making for the advancement of education in New Granada; instructing the Executive Committee to enter into a correspondence concerning the general interests of education among the Armenians; requesting Mr. D. Prentice, of Utica, to prepare an essay on the measures necessary to promote uniformity in meteorological observations in the United States; instructing the Executive Committee to call a convention of teachers

in this city, for such specified objects and at such time as they may determine, provided it seem to them advisable.

Committees were appointed to ascertain how education in New Granada might be best promoted by the Lyceum, to solicit funds for that object, and use them under direction of the Executive Committee; to correspond with the friends of lyceums in the South, and to propose a meeting of the American Lyceum this year, at such time as may be approved.

On August 18, 1835, an education convention met at West Chester, Penn., in accordance with a call made by Dr. Keagy, in the name of the Teachers' Lyceum of Philadelphia. It continued in session two days, organized a State Lyceum, electing Jas. Roberts, of Montgomery county, President, and held discussions upon various questions of interest. In an address delivered by Mr. Holbrook before the Convention, he stated that there had then been formed fifteen or sixteen State lyceums, over one hundred county lyceums, and about three thousand village lyceums, besides many connected with academies and schools.*

The SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING was opened in New York, May 6, 1836, with W. A. Duer, President, and T. Dwight, Jr., Secretary *pro tem*. There were present (81) delegates and members from the Pennsylvania State Lyceum, the Lyceums of New York city, Brooklyn, and Dorchester, Mass.; the Beriah Sacred Lyceum, N. Y.; Philadelphia Teachers' Lyceum; Juvenile Lyceums of the New York Public Schools; the Hamilton Literary Association of Brooklyn; New York Mercantile Library Association; Newark Young Men's Society; Young Men's Association for Mutual Improvement, of Albany; Fall River Atheneum, R. I.; New York Public School Teachers' Association; New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb; New York Handel and Haydn Society, and invited members. The officers of the preceding year were reelected, the lists of corresponding secretaries and members of the Executive Committee only being in a few instances altered.

The report of T. Dwight, Jr., Corresponding Secretary, described

* This movement was followed by the establishment of many subordinate lyceums in the State, and by zealous exertions, in both lyceums and schools, for the wider diffusion of knowledge, especially by the collection and exchange of specimens of the productions of nature and of art. During this time, Mr. Holbrook, who had been actively interested in these movements in Pennsylvania, issued a pamphlet giving the plan and object of a *Universal Lyceum*, with the names of the proposed officers. The person designated as president was Henry Brougham; while the 52 vice-presidents, and 139 secretaries were men of all countries in the world, distinguished for science or philanthropy. The "actuary" of this Lyceum was Mr. Holbrook himself. The particular object intended was "to secure the assistance of such men in aid of the efforts of young inquirers after knowledge, and of inexperienced laborers for the advancement of science, the elevation of morals, and the redemption of the human family."

the operations of the Society during the year as having been more various and extensive than in any preceding twelvemonth, and the correspondence as increasing, both in the labor required, and in its results, and referred to the poverty of the Society as greatly to be regretted. This report was published, and gives much information respecting educational movements in connection with the lyceum system.

Written or verbal reports, official and otherwise, were received respecting lyceums and some other kindred institutions in Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Illinois. A report was communicated by the United States Naval Lyceum, and published in the "Transactions."

Discussions were held upon the subjects of "Mutual Instruction in Common Schools," and "School Funds." Abstracts of the first discussion were thought worthy of publication, and the latter subject was finally referred to a committee for their investigation, to report at the next meeting.

Addresses and essays were given or communicated as follows:—By Dr. S. G. Howe, *on the Methods and Means of Instructing the Blind*; J. W. Garnett, of Va., *on the Influence of Literary Institutions on the Interests of the Union*; N. Dodge, of Philadelphia, *on Emulation in Schools, and proper motives to Study*; F. A. Packard, *on the Means of Procuring Popular Coöperation in favor of Common Education*; H. Bokum, Cambridge, Mass., *on the Moral and Intellectual Condition of the German Population in the United States*; W. A. Alcott, *on Missionaries of Education*; Harvey Peet, *on the Education of the Blind*; Mr. Caballero, *on Education in New Granada*.

Resolutions were adopted, that the payment of one dollar should enable any one to receive all the regular publications of the Society for the year; and the payment of three dollars should confer the additional right of membership, if approved by the Executive Committee; requesting of the members information and yearly correspondence respecting the subordinate lyceums throughout the country; recommending the publication of a library of books for the blind; recommending the introduction of elementary instruction in natural history into common schools; recommending the plan proposed by the Pennsylvania Lyceum for the occasional occupation of the young in collecting objects of natural history for exchange, exercises in drawing, and correspondence; directing the Executive Committee to omit in the publication of addresses, &c., all paragraphs that may contain sectarian or political allusions of any kind, should any such unfortunately appear; appointing delegates to the Western Institute and College of Teachers; amending Art. V. of the Constitution, so as to read, "The Lyceum shall hold an annual meeting at such time and place as the preceding annual meeting

shall have decided ; that the next annual meeting be held at Philadelphia, on the first Tuesday in May, 1837.

A series of resolutions was moved by T. Dwight, Jr., and adopted, to the effect that measures for the rapid and universal improvement of common schools ought immediately to be taken ; that the best plans, means, and methods of instruction ought to be introduced without delay, at any expense ; that wise laws in favor of education are very important ; but that popular coöperation is of paramount importance, and may better be in advance of laws than behind them, and that this may be greatly promoted by the intelligent exertions of devoted men ; that friends of education should act without delay in visiting and improving common schools, addressing public assemblies, forming lyceums, or by other means excite and direct a general cooperation in its favor ; that such be requested to communicate their designs, and subsequently their proceedings and results, or their contributions to the American Lyceum ; and that the Lyceum, so far as its funds will allow, will gratuitously send their proceedings monthly to every county in the Union.

A committee was appointed to report on the best mode of enlarging the operations of the Lyceum, and of interesting the public mind in its great object.

Mr. Holbrook gave notice that a quantity of minerals, sent by the Pennsylvania Lyceum, was in the city, and that provision had been made by the Lyceum for the supply of all the counties in the Union with cabinets of minerals by exchange.

The SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING met at Philadelphia, on May 3, 1837, under the presidency of Rev. G. W. Ridgley, of Penn. The number of delegates from lyceums present was about sixty-five, besides several individual members. The former officers were re-elected, with few exceptions. The Corresponding Secretary, T. Dwight, Jr., presented his report, which was ordered published. Reports were also received from the several lyceums represented, from the Cabinet of Natural Science of the University of Pennsylvania, and from the Hartford Natural History Society.

Discussions were held upon the following questions :—" What principle should be adopted by a State in appropriating its share of the surplus revenue for the support of education ?" " What motives should be addressed in the Education of Youth ?" " Ought the Monitorial System of Instruction to be introduced into Common Schools ?" " What is the best means of securing the influence and efforts of Females in Intellectual and Moral Improvement ?"

Lectures were delivered as follows:—J. P. Espy, on *Meteorology*; S. Wood, of London, on the *Interrogative Method of Instruction*; J. Orville Taylor, on the *State of Education in New York*; Dr. A. Comstock, on *Elocution, and the cure of Stammering*; on the *Education of the Deaf and Dumb*.

A communication was also received from G. R. Gliddon, on the recent formation of an Egyptian Society.

Resolutions were passed, requesting all lyceums to keep a table of meteorological observations, and report the same to J. P. Espy, of Philadelphia; expressing the opinion that no institution has ever been established so well calculated to allay party excitements and unite all classes in the cause of education, and recommending to the friends of education to use their influence in the establishment of lyceums throughout the world.

A committee was appointed, with power to employ agents for the purpose of collecting and diffusing information respecting lyceums and the general subject of education, to carry out the objects and designs of the Society, and to solicit funds in its behalf.

A committee was also appointed to bring before Congress a memorial upon the subject of meteorology, asking an appropriation that should secure simultaneous observations throughout the country, and the services of an able meteorologist in collecting the observations and deducing general laws and facts therefrom.

The EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING was convened at Hartford, May 15, 1838, Rev. T. H. Gallaudett in the chair, and was organized by the appointment of Gen. Nat. Terry, President, and T. Dwight, Jr., Secretary.

Reports were received from the State Lyceums of Pennsylvania and Connecticut (which had been formed during the session of the Lyceum) from the lyceum of Bucks county, Penn., and from twenty-one other lyceums, institutes, and kindred societies. The Annual Report of the Corresponding Secretary was read, and afterwards published.

Essays and communications were read as follows:—L. G. Pray, of Boston, on the *Primary Schools of Boston*; Dr. W. A. Alcott, on *Religious Instruction in Common Schools*; on the *Character and Objects of the American Physiological Society*; F. A. Packard, on the *Importance of uniting Moral and Religious Instruction with the Cultivation of the Intellect*; J. A. Hamersley, of Hartford, on an *International Copyright Law*; W. C. Woodbridge, on the *Education of the Eye*; and on two remarkable *Sicilian Arithmeticians*.

After discussion upon the question, "Can the system of Monitorial Instruction be adopted with advantage in Common Schools?" It was decided in the negative, but afterwards referred to the next session.

A committee was appointed to report upon the subject of "The Embellishment and Improvement of Towns." Their report, by the

Chairman, W. A. Alcott, was published and printed in the Journal of Education for August, 1838.

Resolutions were adopted, after general discussion, as follows : In approval of the proposition of the American Sunday School Union to publish a selection of their books as a school library ; that the use of the Bible in our popular systems of education, as a text-book of moral and religious instruction, is regarded as indispensable ; recommending the formation of associations of school teachers throughout the country, holding regular meetings for mutual instruction relative to the government, education, and elevation of their respective schools ; requesting the lyceums and societies there represented to contribute funds in order to enable the Society to publish its proceedings.

A resolution respecting the appointment of agents, as proposed at the last meeting, was referred to the next annual meeting of the Lyceum.

The following officers were duly elected for the ensuing year :

President—W. A. Duer, N. Y.

Vice-Presidents—G. W. Ridgley, Penn. ; E. Everett ; P. W. Radcliff, N. Y. ; J. Griscom ; Nat. Terry, Ct. ; T. Frelinghuysen, N. J.

Recording Secretary—R. G. Rankin, N. Y.

Treasurer—A. Halsey, N. Y.

Corresponding Secretaries—T. Dwight, Jr. ; F. A. Packard ; J. L. Comstock ; J. P. Brace, Hartford ; W. A. Clayton, Geo. ; J. M. Sturtevant, Ill. ; W. C. Woodbridge ; A. Woods, Alabama ; J. M. Garnett, Va. ; C. Goddard, Ohio ; J. M. Alexander, N. J. ; Prof. A. W. Smith, Conn.

The NINTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in the city of New York on the 3d, 4th, and 6th of May, 1839.

The subject of a NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION had already excited some attention, and had been urged in various quarters. Prof. Charles Brooks, of the New York University, previously of Hingham, Mass., who had long been one of the most zealous promoters of education in New England, had taken occasion of the delivery of a course of lectures at Philadelphia upon education, to urge the gathering of such a convention. In accordance with this suggestion, the following notice appeared in the Philadelphia and New York papers of March 18, 1839 :

The friends of elementary education, anxious that adequate instruction should be extended to every child in our republic, have proposed that a Convention be held in Philadelphia in November next, just before the meeting of Congress, for the purpose of discussing the following questions. The plan proposed by Prof. Brooks is, to invite the Governors or Legislatures of the several States to invite the prominent friends of education to come as delegates. No power whatever is to be vested in the Convention. It is merely for friendly consultation and debate. All sects in religion, and all parties in politics have equal rights and opportunities. Sectarian politics and sectarian religion to be emphatically and wholly excluded.

Among the objects and topics contemplated are the following:—To gather educational statistics; to ascertain what has been accomplished in different parts of the country; to discuss the systems now in operation in Europe, especially those in Holland, Germany, Prussia, France, and England, and see how far they may be applied in the United States; to inquire into the value of Normal Schools; to ascertain how and where may be procured the best school apparatus, the best reading books, the best school libraries, the best models of school-houses, &c., &c.

The Convention might petition Congress to insert a new item in taking the next census, viz.:—to see how many children there are in each State, between the ages of seven and sixteen, who have received no elementary instruction.

These and their kindred topics would elicit a mass of useful information which might be relied on as a basis for introducing legislation, leaving to each State the opportunity of adopting or rejecting whatever it pleases.

The same subject was now made the principal topic of discussion before the American Lyceum, and upon motion of Mr. Brooks, it was unanimously determined to call a National Convention, and a committee of five from different States were appointed to convene the assembly at Philadelphia in the last week of the following November. Mr. Brooks, as member of the committee and original mover of the call, drew up the following circular invitation, which was addressed to the Governor and the members of the Legislature of each State:

CIRCULAR.

FELLOW CITIZENS:—At the ninth annual meeting of the American Lyceum, held in the city of New York on the 3d, 4th, and 6th of May, 1839, the following resolutions, proposed by Professor Brooks, of Massachusetts, were maturely considered and unanimously adopted, viz:

Resolved, That it is expedient to hold a National Convention for one week in the "Hall of Independence," at Philadelphia, beginning on the 22d of November next, at 10 o'clock, A. M., for the purpose of discussing the various topics connected with elementary education in the United States.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to request the Governor, (and if in session, the Legislature,) of each State in the Union, to invite the friends of education in their State to attend the Convention.

The undersigned, having been appointed to form this committee, do now, in obedience to their instructions, respectfully address you on this paramount subject.

The American Lyceum in taking measures to carry into effect the above resolutions, expresses its deep anxiety for the proper physical, intellectual, and moral culture of every child in the United States. It is ascertained that as many as nineteen out of twenty children, who receive instruction, receive it at the common schools. These schools, therefore, must be with us the hope of civilization, liberty, and virtue. To elevate them so as to meet the wants of our republic is the high and single aim of the Convention. Parties in politics and sects in religion will not for a moment be recognized in any form. No power will be vested in the assembly. It will be, we trust, a company of philanthropists, patriots, and Christians coming together in the spirit of an expansive benevolence, to consult for the higher good of the rising generation, and whose deliberations and results, when published to the country, will bring the great cause of education simultaneously before the several States in a form for enlightened, definite, and successful action. As subservient to this humane and patriotic object, we would suggest a few among the many topics which will demand the consideration of the meeting, viz:

How many children are there in each State who, according to the laws of that State, should be under instruction? How many of this number are found in the schools? What is the condition of the common schools in each State?

What is the organization of the school system? What branches of knowledge should be taught in our common schools? What should be the character of our common school books? How may school apparatus and school libraries be made most useful? In what branches should instruction be given orally, and in what degree? What should be the qualifications of teachers? Are normal schools, or seminaries for the preparation of teachers, desirable? On what plan should they be established? Is a central normal school for the Union desirable? Should it be under the direction of Congress or a society of citizens? What connection should the common schools have with academies, colleges, and universities? What models for school-houses are best? Will a Board of Education, established by each State, afford the best supervision, and secure the highest improvement of the schools? How can itinerant teachers and lecturers best supply destitute places? Is a national system of instruction desirable? How should a school fund be applied? In what part of each State has the greatest progress been made in elementary education? How may school statistics, which must be the basis of legislation, be most easily collected? What features of the system now in operation in Holland, Germany, Prussia, France, and Great Britain may be most usefully adopted in this country?

FELLOW CITIZENS:—The discussion of these and kindred topics will probably elicit a mass of information, the importance of which can not be easily overstated. We would therefore urge those, who shall attend the Convention, to come prepared for making known the valuable facts they can gather. Believing that all the talent of a country should be so tempted forth, by judicious culture, as to bring it into profitable and harmonious action; that it is important to the public good as well as to private happiness that we should receive the requisite supply of useful information; and that each faculty which the Creator has implanted in childhood should be developed in its natural order, proper time, and due proportion; we invite you to secure the attendance of delegates from your State, prepared to promote the first duty of your republic—the *education of our youth*. Believing that our country must look to intelligence as its defense and to virtue as its life-blood; and that the plan now proposed, originating in the most enlightened views of freedom and humanity, will be the first in a series of means for securing the greatest good to future generations, not only among us, but to our sister republics, the Lyceum desires to bring into a focus all the light which can be collected in our land. Some of the most distinguished gentlemen in the several States have promised to be present; and we would suggest the expediency of inviting the members of Congress (who will be on their way to Washington about the time of meeting) to join the Convention.

With the most heartfelt good wishes for the success of every effort for the benefit of the young, both in your State and throughout the Union, we are

Your friends and fellow citizens,

THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN, of New Jersey.

CHARLES BROOKS, of Massachusetts.

JOHN GRISCOM, of Pennsylvania.

HENRY R. SCHOOLCRAFT, of Michigan.

THEODORE DWIGHT, JR., of New York.

NEW YORK, June, 1839.

P. S. We respectfully invite each editor of a newspaper in the United States to give his patrons the opportunity of reading the above circular, and to add this postscript as recording our sincerest thanks for his friendly coöperation.

NATIONAL CONVENTION.

The Convention met on Nov. 22, 1839, at the session room of the Second Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia. There were present fifty-five delegates from the States of New York, Maryland, Delaware, and North Carolina, the District of Columbia, the city of Baltimore, and Board of Commissioners of Public Schools of Baltimore, the Select Council and Common Council of Philadelphia, the Directors of the Philadelphia Public Schools, the Pennsylvania Ly-

ceum, and the Philadelphia Lyceum. Prof. John Griscom, of New York, was called to the chair, and Z. C. Lee, of Baltimore, appointed Secretary, and a committee was appointed to prepare business and nominate officers.

Upon report of the committee, the following gentlemen were elected officers of this Convention :

President—Prof. John Griscom.

Vice-Presidents—W. C. Johnson, of Maryland; J. R. Chandler, of Philadelphia; Willard Hall, of Delaware; Samuel Webb, of Philadelphia.

Secretary—Z. C. Lee, of Baltimore.

Assistant Secretary—Rev. G. Jenkins, of Philadelphia.

The Hon. W. C. Johnson, Chairman of the committee on business, then submitted the following resolutions, which after some debate and amendments, in which Messrs. E. Stanley, of North Carolina, W. C. Johnson, J. Jenkins, Rev. Dr. Geiteau, of Baltimore, J. R. Chandler, J. King, of Baltimore, Z. C. Lee, C. Gilman, of Baltimore, Rev. R. R. Gurley, of Washington, Dr. J. E. Snodgrass and R. M. Laughlin, of Baltimore, W. Wharton and J. J. Barclay, of Philadelphia; Dr. S. Collins and J. P. Kennedy, of Baltimore; Dr. Bache, of Girard College, S. Webb, of Philadelphia, and others participated, were adopted in the following form :

Whereas, the cause of popular education is one which should command the energy and zeal of every lover of his country, and which calls for the united action of the citizens of this republic, therefore

Resolved, That the National Committee of the friends of education, now in session in Philadelphia, desire that an earnest appeal be made in their behalf to the people of the United States in relation to this interesting cause, embodying the precepts contained in the farewell address of the immortal Washington, and the spirit of his compatriots of the Revolution.

Resolved, That a memorial from this Convention to the Congress of the United States be prepared, asking an early appropriation of the Smithsonian legacy to the purposes of education, for which it was designed by the generous philanthropist whose name it bears.

Resolved, That a memorial prepared from this Convention to the Congress of the United States, urging upon that body the propriety of appropriating all, or a part of the proceeds of the sales of public lands, for the purposes of education.

Resolved, That a memorial be presented in behalf of this Convention to the Legislatures of the several States of the Union, urging the establishment of a system of general education, whereby free and common schools may be made accessible to all, and that knowledge be secured to the people which is the bulwark of social and political happiness and freedom.

And whereas, it is most important to rally the friends of education throughout our widely extended country, therefore it is further

Resolved, That the Governors of the several States be requested by this Convention to direct in their messages the attention of the Legislatures to the state of popular education in their respective States; and also that they officially promote immediate inquiry how the same can be improved.

Resolved, That the National Convention, now in session in Philadelphia, recommend to the friends of education in the several States of the Union, the holding of State Conventions, or the formation of State Educational Societies, for the promotion of the cause of education by such means as may seem to them most suitable.

Resolved, That a general Convention of the friends of education, to consist of

delegates from State Conventions, lyceums, public bodies connected with institutions for education, or from regularly constituted public meetings of the friends of the cause, be held in Washington on the first Wednesday of May next.

Resolved, That the officers of this Convention, together with a special committee of nine members to be appointed by the officers, be requested to make all necessary arrangements for securing the attendance of delegates from the various sections of the United States, at the *General National Convention* to be held at the city of Washington in May next.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend to the several State Conventions to appoint delegates to the National Convention to be held in Washington, and a standing committee to correspond with the committee of the National Convention.

Resolved, That the President and Vice-Presidents of this Convention be authorized to appoint the requisite number of committees (to consist of five members each) to prepare the address and memorials contemplated in the preceding resolutions.

Committees were appointed as follows :

To propose an appeal to the people; Messrs. Z. C. Lee, R. R. Gurley, C. C. Burleigh, M. J. Lewis, Dr. Ballinger.

To memorialize Congress respecting the Smithsonian legacy; Messrs. J. R. Chandler, J. J. Barclay, G. M. Wharton, W. Wharton, and G. M. Justice.

To memorialize Congress respecting the appropriation of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands; Messrs. J. P. Kennedy, C. Gilman, Rev. Dr. Geiteau, Rev. E. W. Gilbert, and G. Emier, Jr.

To memorialize the Legislatures of the several States; Messrs. Dr. A. D. Bache, Rev. Dr. Jenkins, Prof. E. C. Wines, Prof. J. Griscom, and W. S. Peet.

Special Committee of Arrangements for a general National Convention; Messrs. Judge Hall, T. Earle, E. W. Gilbert, Prof. J. Bryan, W. Biddle, Dr. O. H. Cosbell, Dr. G. H. Burgin, C. Gilpin, J. Weirgand, and D. Parrish.

After votes of thanks to the city authorities, citizens, and the officers of the meeting, the Convention adjourned *sine die*.

Thus ended, it is believed, as far as all public action was concerned, the operations of the "American Lyceum." Under the discouragements and difficulties attending an imperfect organization, want of sympathy and hearty coöperation, want of authority, and want of funds, it had done what it could. The defects of the system of which it was a part, and which it advocated, the endeavors to remedy them, and the attendant discussions and experiments, tended strongly to develop and introduce better systems and the use of better means. Out of these early lyceum movements originated many permanent educational, library, and lecture associations, as well as innumerable local improvements in the organization, instruction, and discipline of schools, public, and private.

The proceedings of its several meetings, as well as such of the reports, essays, &c., as were published, appeared, with few exceptions, in the *Annals of Education*. The publications of the first year were also issued in pamphlets form. Several of the essays on the fine arts appeared in the *American Monthly Magazine*.

JOSIAH HOLBROOK.

JOSIAH HOLBROOK, the originator of the American Lyceum, and one of the earliest and altogether the most efficient promoter of the American movement in popular education by means of scientific lectures, and classes and associations of adults for mutual improvement, was born in Derby, Conn., in 1788, and graduated at Yale College in 1810. Inspired by Prof. Silliman with a love of Chemistry and Geology, he cultivated these studies after his graduation, while in charge of the paternal farm in 1819; and following the example of Fellenberg, whose enterprise at Hofwyl had become known in this country, commenced an Agricultural Seminary at Derby in connection with Rev. Truman Coe, in 1824. About this time he began to lecture on his favorite sciences to miscellaneous audiences in the villages of the western part of Connecticut and Massachusetts; and in 1826 he published his plan of "Association of Adults for the purpose of Mutual Education," which he had the satisfaction to help to embody in an organization at Millbury, Mass., called the "*Millbury Lyceum, No. 1 branch of the American Lyceum*," in 1826; in the Worcester County Lyceum in 1827; in the Boston Mechanics' Lyceum in 1830; in the Massachusetts State Lyceum in 1831; and in the American Lyceum in 1831; besides hundreds of similar associations in different parts of the country.

In 1825 Mr. Holbrook began to manufacture cheap apparatus for illustrating Geography, Geometry, and Natural Philosophy, which he greatly extended in 1829, in connection with Timothy Claxton, in Boston, and which is still known in the schools of the country as the Holbrook School Apparatus.

In 1830 he issued the first of a series of *Scientific Tracts*, and in 1832 published the first number of the "*Family Lyceum*." In 1837 he entered on the enterprise of building up a community at Berea, Ohio, called the Lyceum Village, and in 1842 became central agent of a plan of School Exchanges, having its office in the building of the Trustees of the Public School Society of New York. This last plan contemplated the spread of his method of school instruction, as set forth by S. W. Seton, in the Fortieth Report of the Trustees in 1846.

Mr. Holbrook died in May, 1854, near Lynchburg, Va. For an extended memoir, with a portrait; See *Barnard's American Educators*, Vol. II.

THEODORE DWIGHT.

THEODORE DWIGHT, JR., an efficient laborer in the field of popular enlightenment by his pen, as author, and editor and correspondent of educational magazines and newspapers, and an active participator in the Lyceum movement inaugurated by Josiah Holbrook, was born in Hartford, Conn., in 1796, and graduated at Yale College, in 1814.

Among Mr. Dwight's publications are "*A Tour in Italy, 1821.*" "*The School-master's Friend and the Committee-man's Guide, 1835.*" "*Dictionary of Roots and Derivatives, 1837.*" "*The Father's Book, 1837.*" "*History of Connecticut, 1841.*" "*The American Magazine, 1845-1852.*" "*Lecture on Management of Common Schools, 1835.*"

XII. THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

PRELIMINARY MEASURES.

THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION had its origin in the comprehensive plans instituted by the Commissioner of Public Schools (Henry Barnard) in 1843, to disseminate as widely as possible, by all the agencies within his reach, a knowledge of existing defects and practical remedies, and to awake in parents, teachers, school committees, and the public generally, an inquiring, intelligent and active interest in all that relates to the advancement of public schools and popular education in Rhode Island. Among these agencies and means are enumerated by him, in his report to the Legislature in 1845, the following :—(1.) The Public Lecture and Conference, not only in every county, but in every town, and every large neighborhood in every town. (2.) The conversation of an itinerating agent in towns and districts where a school-house was to be built, and the schools graded. (3.) The cheap, or gratuitous circulation of educational tracts, documents and periodicals. (4.) The establishment of a library of books on education, agriculture, the mechanic arts, &c., in every town. (5.) The formation and coöperation of associations of teachers, school-officers, and friends of education in towns, counties, and the State, for the advancement of the common object. (6.) The holding of Teachers' Institutes for the more prolonged and systematic discussion of methods of instruction and the whole subject of school management. (7.) The establishment of at least one Normal School. On the subject of educational associations, in the Report in 1845, above referred to, the Commissioner remarks :

Teachers in every town have been urged to hold occasional meetings, or even a single meeting, for the purpose of listening to practical lectures and discussions, or what would in most cases be better, of holding familiar conversation together, on topics connected with the arrangement of schools, on methods of instruction now practiced or recommended in the various periodicals or books which they have consulted, and on the condition of their own schools. But something more permanent and valuable than these occasional meetings has been aimed at by an organization of the teachers of the State, or at least of a single county, into a Teachers' Institute, with a systematic plan of operations from year to year, which shall afford to young and inexperienced teachers an opportunity to review the studies they are to teach, and so witness, and to some extent practice, the best methods of arranging and conducting the classes of a school, as well as of obtaining the matured views of the best teachers and educators on all the great

topics of education, as brought out in public lectures, discussions and conversation. The attainments of solitary reading will thus be quickened by the action of living mind. The acquisition of one will be tested by the experience and strictures of others. New advances in any direction by one teacher will become known, and made the common property of the profession. Old and defective methods will be held up, exposed and corrected, while valuable hints will be followed out and proved. The tendency to a dogmatical tone and spirit, to one-sided and narrow views, to a monotony of character—which every good teacher fears, and to which most professional teachers are exposed, will be withstood and obviated. The sympathies of a common pursuit, the interchange of ideas, the discussion of topics which concern their common advancement, the necessity of extending their reading and inquiries, and of cultivating the habit of written and oral expression, all these things will attach teachers to each other, elevate their own character and attainments, and the social and pecuniary estimation of the profession.

One such institute was organized in Washington county last winter, and held five meetings, at which written and verbal reports were made by teachers respecting the condition of their respective schools, the difficulties encountered from irregularity of attendance and want of uniformity of books, the methods of classification, instruction and government pursued, and the encouragement received from the occasional visits of parents and committees. This institute proposes to hold a meeting, after the teachers of the county are engaged for the present season, to continue in session from one to two weeks.

The object aimed at was to bring the friends of school improvement, scattered over a town, county, or the State even, together, as often as their convenience will allow, that by an interchange of views and acquaintance with each other, they may form new bonds of sympathy and channels of united effort in promoting its success. It is applying to the advancement of public schools the same instrumentality which has proved so useful in every other great enterprise of the day.

The earliest association of the kind was formed in Washington county; and, within a period of a little more than a year from its organization, it has held twelve general meetings in the different towns in the county, most of which have continued in session through two days; secured the services of a local agent to inspect the schools and deliver lectures in every district; and by the circulation of books, periodicals and documents on this subject, has awakened a very general and lively interest, and laid the foundation of great and progressive improvements in the organization, instruction and discipline of public schools.

The Kent County Association was formed in February last, and has held general meetings in most of the large neighborhoods of the county, which have in most instances been numerous attended by parents and others residing in the immediate vicinity.

The Smithfield and Cumberland Institute has held ten public meetings, and includes among its officers and members some of the most ardent and intelligent friends of education in the State.

The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction was formed in January last; and its officers and members, by attending and addressing public meetings in different parts of the State, have already rendered me very important cooperation, and done essential service in the cause of educational improvement.

These associations should be extended so as to embrace the females, and especially the mothers of a district or town. Let the mothers read, converse with each other, and become well informed as to what constitutes a good school; and the fathers and brothers who are voters will be reminded of their neglect of the school interest of the district or town. Let them visit the places where their little children are doomed to every species of discomfort; and improvements in the seats, desks, modes of warming and ventilating schoolrooms will follow. There is a motive power in the ardor and strength of maternal love, if it can once be properly informed and enlisted in this work, which must act most powerfully and beneficently on the improvement of public schools and the progress of society generally.

The following account of the formation and proceedings of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, is drawn from the official records and printed documents of the Society.

THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

On the suggestion of Mr. Barnard, a preliminary meeting was held in the City Council Chamber, on Friday evening, December 23d, 1844, of which N. Bishop, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Providence, was chairman. After the reading of a communication from Mr. Barnard, and remarks by Messrs. Kingsbury, Perry, and others, a committee was appointed consisting of Messrs. Kingsbury, Day, Perry, Bishop, and Stimpson, to take the subject into consideration and report at a future meeting.

The following Report, was submitted to a meeting in the State House, January 21, 1845, by Mr. Kingsbury, in behalf of the committee :

At the suggestion of Mr. Barnard, State Agent of Public Schools, a meeting of teachers and friends of education was held a few weeks since, in the City Council Chamber, for the purpose of considering the subject of a State Society for the promotion of public school education. Mr. N. Bishop, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Providence, was called to the chair, and after discussion by several individuals, it was voted, that Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, Perry, Day and Stimpson be a committee to take the subject into further consideration, and, if it be deemed expedient, to report at a future meeting. That committee having given the subject a considerable share of attention, beg leave to present the following report:

Whatever doubt may exist in regard to the influence of popular education in other countries, there can be none in regard to the United States. *Here it may be assumed as an axiom that the people—the whole people—should be educated.* Our institutions, civil, political, and religious, all imperatively demand it. *How shall it be done?* is the only question that admits of discussion. To this question only one rational answer can be given—chiefly by public schools.

Whatever influence may be exerted by the Press, by the College and High Schools in advancing education,—and we have no doubt but *that* influence is great and indispensable; it is not for a moment to be supposed that these means are sufficient to educate a *whole people*. History does not present a solitary example of a country or province where education has been universal, without some instrumentality analogous to Common Schools.

Literature and science may flourish where only the *wealthy few* are highly educated. It is possible that *the few*, by monopolizing the emoluments and privileges which superior knowledge confers, may, while the *many* are toiling in agriculture or mechanic arts, rise to higher attainments, and cause science and literature to take deeper root and to bring forth mature fruits. Though such fruits might bring blessings with them, the genius of our institutions requires rather the diffusion than the accumulation of knowledge. It was the boast of Henry IV., of France, that he would "take care that every peasant should be in such a condition as to have a fowl in his pot." It should be the care of *our country* that *every child should be educated*.

Our forefathers laid us under deep obligations, therefore, when they consecrated the common school to the education of the people. Ought we not deeply to regret that within our own State that mission has not been fully accomplished. There are those among us who can not read or write. Never should the friends of education rest till this stain is wiped from the escutcheon of the State. Though we hail with delight the deep interest now beginning to be awakened in different parts of the State, still it is an important question what further can be done to give our public school system an impulse so vigorous as to send its fullest blessings to the most secluded district.

Light must be diffused in regard to the subject. Parents must be roused from apathy by having the evils of ignorance and the blessings of knowledge placed before them; the connection between crime and ignorance must be shown; it must be demonstrated that knowledge not only leads to higher elevation of character here and better hopes of a future life, but it must be proved that an intelligent, educated man will earn more money than an ignorant one; the incompetency of

teachers must be exposed, and public sentiment must be made to demand better; in short, we should all be brought to the full conviction that good public schools are a powerful safeguard of our country. In view of these and similar considerations, we deem it expedient to form, at the present time, a State Association for the promotion of public school education.

Mr. Barnard addressed the meeting on the necessity of associated and coöperated efforts on the part of all the parties to whom the education of the children and the youth of the State was committed. Teachers in the schools of the different grades, and in different parts of the State, know nothing of each other, and are sometimes thought to have antagonistic interests, instead of laboring together for professional improvement. Parents do not understand how much depends on home preparation and coöperation to aid the teacher. Public spirited citizens do not appreciate the connection between ignorance, and low vicious tastes, and habits ripening into crime, or see the pecuniary value of a good education.

The community generally need to understand better than now the necessary conditions of a successful system of public schools—good school-houses, intelligent and faithful committees, punctual and regular attendance of pupils, and above all, well qualified, permanently employed, and progressive teachers—and that all these conditions rested on liberal pecuniary appropriations, and these could not be had without an active, intelligent public interest in the Legislature, and in town and district meetings. To excite and direct this interest, frequent meetings and discussions must be held in every neighborhood of the State. One man, no matter how willing to work, or how industrious, could not get up and address as many meetings as it was desirable to hold. Wherever school-houses were to be built—and good school-houses were needed not only in every town, but in nearly every district—wherever a gradation system was practicable, and this could be effected in every manufacturing village—wherever permanent teachers could be employed, and this should be done in every town, and in all the large districts—wherever taxes on property were to be levied, and this was necessary in every town,—public opinion must be enlightened if wise and liberal measures were to be adopted. Here is a field in which every intelligent teacher and friend of education can take an active part under the auspices of a State Association, of which the people could not be jealous, as belonging to no particular party or sect.

Besides this great fundamental object of all individual and associated effort—the awakening of an inquiring, intelligent, and active interest on the whole subject of public schools and popular education—there were certain special measures, in which as State Commissioner he needed immediate help, if the interest already awakened was to be followed by permanent and extensive improvement in the organization and instruction of the public schools, and the education of the community. The advocacy of the public press must be enlisted. Not only the political and religious newspapers which circulate in the State must recognize and discuss the movement, but periodicals and tracts exclusively devoted to the thorough discussion of educational topics of general and local interest must be printed and distributed. Arrangements have already been made to have at least sixteen pages of educational reading matter attached to every Almanac sold in the State in the winter of 1844-45, by which he could discern already the germs of school reforms scattered broadcast in at least ten thousand families. By the wayside and fireside lectures and interesting normal classes of William S. Baker in the southern portion of the State, a demonstration will be made of the value of a system of school inspection conducted by practical teachers and educators, and pervading

every town and district. By a cheap and comprehensive system of County Teachers' Institutes, gathering in, not a few, but a large majority of all the teachers of the State, each scholar under the instruction by day of accomplished and experienced professors, and with lectures and exercises in the evening will be sure to attract, interest, and instruct parents, school officers, and the people generally—the value of professional training, and glimpses at least of the science and art, and the results of education, will be seen and felt. Out of these and other measures will grow up the State Normal School, for the professional training of R. I., young men and young women for the teachers of the children and youth of the State, as well as Public Libraries and courses of Popular Lectures in every town and large village, by which the work of self-education will be carried on among the adults in the homes, the factories, and the field. This is the large comprehensive work in which he invited teachers of every name, and parents of every town, and public men of all parties and denominations to share in some plan of associated effort. The framework of such an association need be very simple, as was shown in the draft of the Constitution, which he read.

The Report of the Committee and this plan set forth by Mr. Barnard, after being discussed by Mr. Bishop, Dr. Hartshorn, Prof. Gammell, Hon. Wilkins Updike, Col. Pitman, Mr. Tourtellott, Mr. A. O. Peck, and the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet of Connecticut, was referred to a committee, of which Mr. Barnard was chairman, who were instructed to present a Constitution to an adjourned meeting to be held in Providence on the 24th ult.

At the adjourned meeting of the Westminster Hall, on the evening of January 25th, 1845, Hon. Wilkins Updike, of South Kingston, in the chair, the committee reported back the draft of a Constitution prepared by Mr. Barnard, which, after remarks by Mr. Barnard, Pres. Wayland, Prof. Caswell, Rev. Mr. Osgood, Mr. Perry, and Mr. Bishop, was adopted as follows :

Constitution.

ARTICLE 1. This association shall be styled the *Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*, and shall have for its object the improvement of public schools and other means of popular education in this State.

ARTICLE 2. Any person residing in this State may become a member of the Institute by subscribing this Constitution and contributing any sum towards defraying its incidental expenses.

ARTICLE 3. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, two or more Vice-Presidents, a Recording Secretary, a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, (with such powers and duties respectively as their several designations imply,) and Directors, who shall together constitute an Executive Committee.

ARTICLE 4. The Executive Committee shall carry into effect such measures as the Institute may direct ; and for this purpose, and to promote the general object of the Institute, may appoint special committees, collect and disseminate information, call public meetings for lectures and discussions, circulate books, periodicals and pamphlets on the subject of schools, school systems and education generally, and perform such other acts as they may deem expedient, and make report of their doings to the Institute at its annual meeting.

ARTICLE 5. A meeting of the Institute for the choice of officers shall be held annually, in the city of Providence, in the month of January, at such time and place as the executive committee may designate, in a notice published in one or more of the city papers ; and meetings may be held at such other times and places as the executive committee may appoint.

ARTICLE 6. This Constitution may be altered at any annual meeting by a majority of the members present, and any regulations not inconsistent with its provisions may be adopted at any meeting.

At an adjourned meeting held in the vestry of the First Baptist Church, on the 29th of January, the following officers, provided for in the Constitution, were elected:

JOHN KINGSBURY, President.

WILKINS UDDER, Vice-President, Washington County.

ARIEL BALLOU, Vice-President, Providence County.

NATHAN BISHOP, Corresponding Secretary.

J. D. GIDDINGS, Recording Secretary.

THOMAS C. HARTSHORN, Treasurer.

Directors.

William Gammell, Providence.

Joseph T. Sisson, North Providence.

J. B. Tallman, Cumberland.

L. W. Ballou, Cumberland.

J. T. Harkness, Smithfield.

J. S. Tourtellott, Gloucester.

Amos Perry, Providence.

Caleb Farnum, Providence,

Samuel Greene, Smithfield.

After remarks by Prof. Gammell, Pitnam, Day, Farnum, Bishop, Dwight, Waterman, and Barnard, resolutions were passed inviting the coöperation of citizens of Rhode Island in the efforts of the Institute to improve the character of the Public Schools, and elevate the social and moral condition of the people.

The operations of the Institute for 1845 are set forth in the following extracts from the First Annual Report of the Executive Committee, drawn up by Prof. Gammell:

The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction had its origin in the public interest, which, one year ago, had begun to appear among the people of this State in the cause of common school education. Its single object, in the language of its constitution, is "the improvement of public schools and the other means of popular education in this State." It was designed to be an organization which should embrace the friends of common school instruction in every town, and unite them in some systematic measures for diffusing information, and in all other appropriate methods, for advancing a cause most intimately connected with the best interests of the entire people of Rhode Island. It owes its origin in no small degree to the results which had already been accomplished by a similar association in the county of Washington, and to the untiring efforts and comprehensive views of the Commissioner of Schools, appointed by the authority of the General Assembly.

In discharging the duties assigned them by the constitution, the Executive Committee have aimed to keep steadily in view the truly liberal and noble objects for which this association was formed; and in all the measures which they have adopted, they have relied upon the advice of the State Commissioner, and sought to carry out the views by which he was already directing his official labors. Indeed, the measures which the Committee have thus far adopted, have been designed simply to coöperate with this officer in his attempts to unite all hearts and all hands in the patriotic work of raising the standard of popular education in Rhode Island.

I. Of these measures, the first and most important has been the holding of meetings of this Institute, and of the friends of education in the different districts of the State. No means have been found more effective than this for calling the attention of the people to the importance and extent of the subject, and for diffusing information respecting it. These meetings have been held in this city, in Newport, Bristol, Warren, Woonsocket, East Greenwich, Valley Falls, Chepachet, Olneyville, Scituate, Fruit Hill, Pawtuxet, Foster and Kingston—in all, in fifteen different towns. They have usually had two sessions; and, in some instances, they have been continued with unabated interest through two successive days. All but two of these meetings have been attended by the President of this Institute, and most of them by the State Commissioner, and by some of the members of this Executive Committee. In these several towns, not only have the meetings been well attended and aided by the teachers and resident citizens, but

in many cases the officers and members of the Institute have been received with a respect, and entertained with a hospitality which the Committee take great pleasure in acknowledging, both on their own personal account, and because they regard it as a cheering indication of the interest which is felt in the cause of education.

At the meetings which have thus been held, it has been the aim of the Committee to elicit from teachers and citizens who might be present, information respecting the local schools, and also to present views and facts pertaining to the most important elementary interests of education, and to the modes of managing common schools. Of the subjects which have been thus discussed, the following may serve as examples, viz.:

- "How parents can cooperate with teachers."
- "The value of a sound public sentiment on the subject of education."
- "That the whole community, and not a part, should be educated."
- "Methods of disciplining and managing schools."
- "The necessity of a gradation of schools."
- "Methods of securing good teachers."
- "Public schools the only available method of educating the entire community."
- "Importance of educating the young morally as well as intellectually."
- "Methods of teaching reading."
- "Methods of teaching spelling."
- "Music as a branch of education in schools."
- "That a State, in order to make the most of its resources, must know how to use them."
- "That a State will increase in wealth in proportion to the intelligence of its population."

Upon all these subjects, which form but a small part of those presented for discussion at the meetings of the Institute, it has been the aim of the Committee to elicit the views of experienced teachers and also of citizens of every profession and every occupation, in order that the best results might be obtained, and the opinions and sympathies of all classes of the community might be united in what we have desired to render an engrossing subject of attention throughout the State.

II. Another means which the Executive Committee have adopted in the accomplishment of the objects they have had in view, has been the establishment of a semi-monthly publication, known as the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction. This journal has been placed under the charge of Henry Barnard, Esq., the State Commissioner of Public Schools, with the assistance of T. C. Hartshorn, Esq., the Treasurer of the Institute, as business agent. Mr. Barnard has consented to assume this new labor, in addition to the duties of his office, and has already issued, including the *extras*, five numbers, which have been circulated among the subscribers through the State. In connection with these numbers of the Journal, and under the same auspices, a series of "Educational Tracts" has been commenced. Five of these "Tracts" have been already published and circulated. The subjects to which they relate are,—1. "The Condition of Education in the United States, with an outline of the School Systems of Connecticut and New York." 2. "Education in its relations to health, insanity, labor, pauperism and crime." 3. "The School System of Massachusetts." 4. "Plans for School-houses." 5. "Hints to teachers on instruction in reading." The end which was intended to be accomplished by the publication, both of the Journal and the Tracts, is the diffusion of valuable information and the inculcation of sound views concerning common schools, not only among teachers and those immediately concerned in their management, but among all classes of citizens. It is the earnest hope of the Committee that these publications will receive the attention of the friends of education in all parts of the State, in order that, if possible, the views and the facts which they contain may reach every family that has children to be educated, and every citizen who has a vote to give or an influence to exert in relation to public instruction.

III. During the autumn, previously to the opening of the district schools for the winter, the State Commissioner adopted the measure, which in other States had been attended with most valuable results, of holding meetings of teachers for the purpose of interchanging views respecting the best modes of teaching and managing schools. These meetings, which have been known by the name of

"Teachers' Institutes," were held under the direction of Mr. Barnard, with the aid and coöperation of this Committee, at Woonsocket, Scituate, Kingston and Newport. At these several places, the teachers came together in considerable numbers from the neighboring towns, and spent several days in discussing the principles and practicing with each other the most approved methods of common school instruction. No meetings which have been held in connection with the interests of education, it is believed, have excited so deep an interest as these gatherings of teachers. Indeed, from the eminently practical character which was given to them, they deserve to be regarded as a species of normal schools, in which newly appointed teachers were made acquainted with the results of large experience and varied acquirements, and in which all were more deeply impressed with the importance of their vocation, and the magnitude of the social and moral interests intrusted to their care. The benefits which have resulted from them may even now be traced in the improved discipline, in the more thorough instruction, and in the pervading spirit of many of the schools of the State.

IV. In addition to the measures which have been enumerated above, the Executive Committee have adopted one other, which they deemed in some degree necessary, in order to give efficiency and success to the means they had already employed. In prosecuting their labors, they constantly experienced the want of some person, practically acquainted with common school instruction and favorably known to the people of the State, who might be able to give his whole time to the work which this Committee are charged with accomplishing. They accordingly appointed Mr. William S. Baker, of South Kingston, to act as the agent of this Institute in promoting the objects for which it has been organized. Mr. Baker having had ample experience as a teacher, and being in every other way well qualified for the service to which he was appointed, has been for several months engaged in labors, in conjunction with the Commissioner, and under the direction of this Committee, which have everywhere, it is believed, been attended with the most gratifying success. He travels from town to town, converses with the people at their homes and by the wayside, visits the schools, holds meetings of the parents, and in every other practicable mode seeks to sustain, and still farther to extend, the interest which the people of Rhode Island have begun to feel in the schools which are to educate their children.

Such is an outline of the measures which the Executive Committee have adopted for accomplishing the purposes of this Association. They have been devised and carried into execution in accordance with the spirit of the constitution, and have been directed to the single object of increasing the facilities, and raising the standard of common school education in this State. How far this object has been accomplished, within the year now closing, it may be impossible very accurately to estimate. They who labor for the education of the young, must wait for a future day to develop the results of their labors. No striking changes—no brilliant consequences are to be expected. The seeds only can be sown—the harvest is to be reaped and the sheaves to be gathered by the hands of other generations. The Executive Committee, however, find reason to believe that the work which this Institute is engaged in promoting has made some progress during the year which has passed. It has been their aim to second the judicious legislation which has been so unanimously adopted by the General Assembly, and to aid the Commissioner of Public Schools in performing the arduous and important work with which he is charged; and they hope that, by the information which has been created in the minds of the community, an impulse has been given to the cause of popular education, which will continue to be felt for many years to come.

In addition to the measures which have thus far been prosecuted by this Association, the Executive Committee beg leave to refer to two others which they hope may be adopted, and to some extent carried into execution during the year that is commencing. These are—1. The establishment of popular lectures as widely as possible in the villages and school-districts of the State. 2. The founding of town libraries, to be composed of books suited for the instruction of the people, especially of the young, in the several branches of useful knowledge."

The Series of Educational Tracts as originally planned, and a list of the Books and Pamphlets relating to Schools, School Systems, and Education, with the number of copies actually circulated up to 1846, and the Topics of Mr. Barnard's Lectures, will be found in Mr. Barnard's Report for 1846.

EDUCATIONAL TRACTS.

The series, as originally planned, was to embrace a number devoted to each of the following topics :

Condition of Education in the United States according to the census of 1840, with an outline of the System of Common Schools in New York and Connecticut.

System of Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Education in its relation to health, insanity, labor, pauperism and crime.

School Architecture, or plans and directions for the location, construction and internal arrangements of school-houses.

Outline of a System of Popular Education for cities and populous villages with an account of the Public Schools of Boston, Providence, Portland, Philadelphia, Rochester, &c.

Outline of a System of Popular Education for manufacturing communities.

Hints respecting the organization and arrangement of public schools in agricultural and sparsely populated districts.

Hints respecting the examination of teachers and the visitation of schools.

Library of Education, or a catalogue of books and periodicals, devoted to the theory and practice of education, with an index to the principal topics treated of in such volumes as are most accessible to teachers.

Hints and methods for teaching the Alphabet.

"	"	"	Spelling.
"	"	"	Pronunciation.
"	"	"	Reading.
"	"	"	Composition.
"	"	"	Grammar.
"	"	"	Geography.
"	"	"	Arithmetic.
"	"	"	Drawing.
"	"	"	Vocal Music.

The use of globes and other means of visible illustration.

Lesson on objects, form, &c., for Primary Schools.

Topics and methods for oral instruction.

Plan of School Register, Class Books, and explanations for their use.

Slate and blackboard exercises, with particular reference to teaching small children.

Duties of teacher and pupil in respect to the school-house.

Duties of parents to the school, with plan of an association of the females of a district or town for the improvement of public schools.

Modes in which young men and young women can become qualified to teach schools.

Teachers' Associations—with plans of organization and topics for discussions.

Teachers' Institutes—their history, and hints for their organization and management.

Normal Schools—their history in Europe, with an account of the Normal Schools in Massachusetts and New York.

Hints respecting physical education in public schools.

Hints as to instruction in manners and morals, with special reference to the conduct of teachers and pupils during recess and intermissions.

School Libraries—their history, with a catalogue of suitable volumes, and an index to the most important subjects treated of in them.

Lyceums, Lectures, and other means of Popular Education, with plans of organization, &c.

BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, AND DOCUMENTS,

Relating to Schools, School Systems, and Education, generally, circulated in the State from November 15, 1843, to January, 1846.

1,000	copies of	Barnard's Report on School Architecture.
200	"	" " " on the Education and Employment of Children in Factories, &c.
60	"	" " " on the Schools and School System of Conn.
150	"	" " " Hints and Methods for the use of Teachers.
3,000	"	Educational Tracts, No. 1, pp. 16. Education in the United States according to the census of 1840, with an Outline of the School Systems of Connecticut and Massachusetts.
3,000	"	Educational Tracts, No. 2. History and Condition of the School System of Massachusetts.
3,000	"	Educational Tracts, No. 3. Education in its relation to Health, Insanity, Labor, Pauperism, and Crime.
3,000	"	Educational Tracts, No. 4. Plans for the Location, Construction, and Internal Arrangement of School-houses.
9,000	"	or 3,000 copies each of three pamphlets relating to Schools and Education, attached to the Farmer's and Rhode Island Almanacs for 1845.
400	"	Mann's Report on Education in Europe.
100	"	" " " Lecture on Education.
100	"	" " " Oration on Education in the United States.
100	"	" " " Letters on Religious Instruction in Common Schools.
35	"	" " " Annual Reports as Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts.
35	"	" " " Abstract of the School Returns, with a History of the Common School System of Massachusetts.
200	"	Massachusetts Common School Journal, Volume 6, for 1844.
35	"	" " " " " Volumes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, & 6.
300	"	New York District School Journal, Volume 5, for 1844-5.
35	"	Common School Journal of Pennsylvania, Volume 1, 1844.
60	"	Connecticut Common School Journal, Volumes 1, 2, 3, & 4.
200	"	School and School-master.
100	"	Annual Report of Superintendent of Common Schools in New York, for 1844.
35	"	Annual Report, with Annual Reports of Deputy Superintendents.
100	"	Henry's Address on Education and Common Schools.
100	"	Randall's (Henry S.) Report on District School Libraries.
50	"	Randall's (Samuel S.) Digest of Laws and Decisions relating to the Common School System of New York.
100	"	Lecture, by G. B. Emerson, on Moral Education.
30	"	" " " on the Advan. of Common Schools.
50	"	Prof. Stowe's Report on Elementary Education in Europe.
50	"	" " " Teachers' Seminars.
50	"	" " " Lecture on the Religious Element in Education.
50	"	Norrend's Lecture on Obstacles to Improvement in Common Schools.
35	"	Thayer's Lecture on Courtesy or Good Behavior in Schools.
35	"	Dr. Alcott's Confessions of a School-master.
100	"	" " " Slate and Blackboard Exercises.
50	"	Rantoul's Remarks on Common Schools and Education.
60	"	Burton's District School as it was.
35	"	Smith's History of Education.
35	"	Annals of Education.
35	"	Miss Sedgwick's Self-Training for Young Ladies.
35	"	Dr. Channing on Self-Culture.
12	"	Wood's Account of Sessional School, Edinburgh.
30	"	Richardson's Address on Common Schools.
10	"	Wines' How shall I govern my School?
25	"	Dunn's School-teachers' Manual.

TOPICS DISCUSSED.

[The following topics, principally on the internal arrangement and management of a common school were introduced by Mr. Barnard into his public addresses, and were drawn up in their present order, to direct in some measure the addresses and discussions, of teachers and others on the theory and practice of education, at meetings held for the special benefit of teachers. It is important that parents, and the public generally should understand the best principles and methods of school arrangement, instruction, and government, that they may sustain and coöperate with the good teacher in his arduous work in the school-room. The other topics thoroughly understood will facilitate the improvement of our school system.]

1. The daily preparation which the teacher should bring to the school-room.
2. The circumstances which make a teacher happy in school.
3. The requisites of success in teaching.
4. Causes of failure in teaching.
5. The course to be pursued in organizing a school.
6. The order of exercises or programme of recitations.
7. The policy of promulgating a code of rules for the government of a school.
8. The keeping of registers of attendance and progress.
9. The duties of the teacher to the parents of the children and to school-officers.
10. The opening and closing exercises of a school.
11. Moral and religious instruction and influence generally.
12. The best use of the Bible or Testament in school.
13. Modes of promoting a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues among children.
14. Modes of promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
15. Modes of securing cleanliness of person and neatness of dress, respect for the school-room, courtesy of tone and language to companions, and gentleness of manners.
16. Modes of preserving the school-house and appurtenances from injury and defacement.
17. Length and frequency of recess.
18. The games, and modes of exercise and recreation to be encouraged during the recess, and at intermission.
19. Modes of preventing tardiness, and securing the regular attendance of children at school.
20. Causes by which the health and constitution of children at school are impaired, and the best ways of counteracting the same.
21. The government of a school generally.
22. The use and abuse of corporal punishment.
23. The establishment of the teacher's authority in the school.
24. Manner of treating stubborn and refractory children, and the policy of dismissing the same from school.
25. Prizes and rewards.
26. The use and abuse of emulation.
27. Modes of interesting and bringing forward dull, or backward scholars.
28. Modes of preventing whispering, and communication between scholars in school.
29. Manner of conducting recitations generally; and how to prevent or detect imperfect lessons.
30. Methods of teaching, with illustrations of each, viz :
 - a. Monitorial.
 - b. Individual.
 - c. Simultaneous.
 - d. Mixed.
 - e. Interrogative.
 - f. Explanative.
 - g. Elliptical.
 - h. Synthetical.
 - i. Analytical.
31. Modes of having all the children of a school (composed as most District schools are, of children of all ages, and in a great variety of studies,) at all times something to do, and a motive for doing it.

32. Methods of teaching the several studies usually introduced into public schools—such as—

- a. The use, and nature, and formation of numbers.
 - b. Mental Arithmetic.
 - c. Written Arithmetic.
 - d. Spelling.
 - e. Reading.
 - f. Grammar—including conversation, composition, analysis of sentences, parsing, &c.
 - g. Geography—including map-drawing, use of outline maps, atlas, globes, &c.
 - A. Drawing—with special reference to the employment of young children, and as preliminary to penmanship.
 - i. Penmanship.
 - j. Vocal music.
 - k. Physiology—so far at least as the health of children and teacher in the school-room is concerned.
33. The apparatus and means of visible illustration, necessary for the schools of different grades.
34. The development and cultivation of observation, attention, memory, association, conception, imagination, &c.
35. Modes of inspiring scholars with enthusiasm in study, and cultivating habits of self-reliance.
36. Modes of cultivating the power and habit of attention and study.
37. Anecdotes of occurrences in the school, brought forward with a view to form right principles of moral training and intellectual development.
38. Lessons, on real objects, and the practical pursuits of life.
39. Topics and times for introducing oral instruction, and the use of lectures generally.
40. Manner of imparting collateral and incidental knowledge.
41. The formation of museums and collections of plants, minerals, &c.
42. Exchange of specimens of penmanship, map and other drawings, minerals, plants, &c., between the different schools of a town, or of different towns.
43. School examinations generally.
44. How far committees should conduct the examination.
45. Mode of conducting an examination by written questions and answers.
46. School celebrations, and excursions of the school, or a portion of the scholars, to objects of interest in the neighborhood.
47. Length and frequency of vacations.
48. Books and periodicals on education, schools and school systems.
49. Principles to be regarded in the construction of a school-house for schools of different grades.
50. Principles on which text-books in the several elementary studies should be composed.
51. The use of printed questions in text-books.
52. The private studies of a teacher.
53. The visiting of each other's schools.
54. The peculiar difficulties and encouragements of each teacher, in respect to school-house, attendance, supply of books, apparatus, parental interest and co-operation, support by committees, &c., &c.
55. The practicability of organizing an association of the mothers and females generally of a district or town, to visit schools, or of their doing so without any special organization.
56. Plan for the organization, course of instruction, and management generally of a Teachers Institute.
57. Advantages of an Association or Conference of the Teachers of a Town or State, and the best plan of organizing and conducting the same.
58. Plan of a Normal School or Seminary, for the training of Teachers for Common or Public Schools.

The Second Annual Report of the Executive Committee, drawn up by Mr. Amos Perry, Principal of a Public Grammar School, Providence, was submitted to the Annual Meeting in Providence, on the 7th of January, 1847. The following extracts will show the direction in which the Institute directed its labors:

By the untiring efforts of the president and the generosity of numerous public spirited citizens a special fund has been raised, and used under the direction of a special Committee, appointed by the Executive Committee, principally for three objects:—1. To circulate Educational Tracts and Periodicals; 2. To employ an agent; 3. To sustain Teachers' Institutes.

In all their efforts, the great aim of the Executive Committee has been to coöperate with the Commissioner of Public Schools, and aid him in accomplishing the leading purpose of his agency. At his suggestion, and from a full knowledge of the needs of the State, three series of publications were commenced, and have been completed within the last year. The subscription price was put lower than the first cost, to induce a large circulation, and thereby increase the usefulness of the publications. The Commissioner discharged, without compensation, the duties of editor and conductor. A part of the deficiency of receipts has been supplied from the special fund, and the remaining and much the larger part, by the Commissioner from his own resources.

The Journal and Extra Journal, comprising 470 pages, form a book of reference of great value and interest. The Educational Tracts, nine in number, and comprising 141 pages, were prepared to meet the immediate wants of the community, though some of them are worthy of lasting preservation, both on account of their subjects and the clear and forcible manner in which they are illustrated. The first five Tracts were printed previous to the first annual meeting of the Institute. The subject of No. 6 is,—“Aids to English Composition.” No. 7, “Oral Instruction in English Grammar.” No. 8, “The coöperation of parents solicited by the teacher of their children.” No. 9, “The coöperation of children solicited by their teacher.”

Mr. William S. Baker, of Warwick, has acted as agent of the Institute for eight months within two years. He has passed his time in lecturing, visiting schools, and in other ways laboring to promote the general object of the Institute. Mr. Baker has lectured in twenty-nine out of the thirty-one towns, and visited a large majority of the districts in them. He has every where been received with kindness, and listened to with attention, and it is believed that his efforts, under the joint direction of the Commissioner and of the special Committee, have been instrumental in awakening much interest and giving it a practical direction.

Arrangements were made by the Executive Committee in connection with Mr. Barnard for holding a Teachers' Institute in this city, during the second week of November.—Teachers from all parts of the State were invited to be present and participate in the privilege of the occasion without incurring for themselves the expense of board. Upwards of two hundred responded to the call, and indicated by their regular attendance and cheerful attention that they both enjoyed the exercises and were benefited by them.

Meetings of this kind are indispensable to the successful operation of a good system of Public Schools. They afford teachers and such as propose to teach, an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the best modes of instruction and discipline, and tend to elevate all the schools to a standard of uniform excellence. Rhode Island was the first State in the Union to sanction Teachers' Institutes by legal enactment, though she has not been the first to appropriate the means to secure their benefits. The Commissioner is authorized to establish them but not to draw any thing from the general treasury to meet their current expenses.

In immediate connection with Teachers' Institutes, the Commissioner is authorized to establish one thoroughly organized Normal School.

This institution should partake of the character of a permanent Teachers' Institute and of a Normal School, and combine the privileges of both. It need not and will not diminish effort in other directions, but will rather stimulate to greater activity. It need not distract attention from old and tried means, but rather add another of the same general character to those already existing. Nothing can be lost; much may and must be gained. The plan is practicable. It has been tried in our midst to a limited extent under the form of Teachers' Institutes.

The Executive Committee would further urge the importance of two means of general education, which were commended to the attention of the Institute in the first annual report. 1. Every considerable village may secure to itself the benefits of a course of lectures by making the necessary arrangements, and paying the current expenses of the lecturers. 2. It is desirable that a library be established in every district in the State, and used under proper regulations for the benefit of the children and inhabitants thereof.

The Third Annual Report of the Executive Committee, drawn up by Mr. Caleb Farnum, and submitted to the Annual Meeting held at the State House on the 21st of January, 1848, exhibit the doings of the Committee for 1847 :

The operations of the Committee since the last annual meeting of the Institute have, for various reasons, been less extended than they were during the two preceding years. The publication of the Journal, which, during its first year, was conducted mainly by the State Commissioner, in the name and with the assistance of the Institute, has been continued during the past year by the Commissioner at his own risk. During the first two years of the Institute, a special agent was employed to coöperate with the State Commissioner in his efforts to awaken interest and disseminate information on the subject of education throughout the State. It was not thought expedient to undertake the employment of such an agent during the past year, on account of obstacles in the way of collecting funds for that purpose. The doings of this Committee for the past year, then, have been restricted, with slight exceptions, to the meetings of the Institute which have been held under the direction of the Committee, in various parts of the State. In holding these meetings it has been the aim of the Committee, as in former years, to second the efforts of the State Commissioner to arouse attention and to enlighten public opinion in reference to that reform in our educational system, to effect which the State Commissioner was appointed, and the Rhode Island Institute was established. Of the beneficial results of these meetings there can be no doubt.

At an adjourned meeting held at Westminster Hall, on the 25th of January, Mr. Barnard, in announcing his withdrawal from the office of Commissioner of Public Schools, thus reviewed his own operations, and the efforts of the Institute :

"Much has been attempted to prepare the way for a broad, thorough and liberal system of public instruction, by interesting all who could be reached by the living voice or the printed page, in the nature and means of education, the condition and wants of the schools, and the best modes of introducing desirable improvements. More than eleven hundred meetings have been held expressly to discuss topics connected with the public schools, at which more than fifteen hundred addresses have been delivered. One hundred and fifty of these meetings have continued through the day and evening; upward of one hundred, through two evenings and a day; fifty, through two days and three evenings; and twelve, including the Teachers' Institutes, through an entire week. In addition to this class of meetings and addresses, upward of two hundred meetings of teachers and parents have been held for lectures and discussions on improved methods of teaching the studies ordinarily pursued in public schools, and for exhibitions or public examinations of schools, or of a class of pupils in certain studies, such as arithmetic, reading, &c. These meetings have proved highly useful. Besides these various meetings, experienced teachers have been employed to visit particular towns and sections of the State, and converse freely with parents by the wayside and the fireside, on the condition and improvement of the district school. By these various agencies it is believed that a public meeting has been held within three miles of every home in Rhode Island.

To the interest awakened by these addresses, and by the sympathy of numbers swayed by the same voice, and by the same ideas, must be added the more permanent and thoughtful interest cultivated by the reading of books, pamphlets, and tracts on the same topics at home. More than sixteen thousand pamphlets and tracts, each containing at least sixteen pages of educational matter, have been distributed gratuitously through the State; and in one year, not an Almanac was sold in Rhode Island without at least sixteen pages of educational reading attached. This statement does not include the official documents published by the State, nor

the Journal of the Institute, nor upward of twelve hundred bound volumes on schools and school systems, and the theory and practice of teaching, which have been purchased by teachers, or which have been added to public or private libraries within the last four years. In addition to the printed information thus disseminated, the columns of the different newspapers published in the State, have always been open to original and selected articles on education, and to notices of the proceedings of school meetings.

The result of this preparation for practical legislation and popular action in the several towns and districts, may be summed up as follows :

1. An inefficient school system has been abolished, and a system has been established, having within itself capacities of adaptation to large and small districts, and to towns of widely different circumstances, as to the number, occupation, and wealth of their inhabitants, and which provides within itself for the establishment, support, and supervision of schools of different grades, and for the cheap and speedy adjustment of all difficulties that may arise in its administration.

After the condition of the public schools, and the working of the old school law was ascertained by personal observation, and by communications from school officers in every town in the State, a bill was framed by request of the General Assembly in the winter of 1844, in which all that worked well in the existing law was retained, and only such modifications and additions as experience pointed out were introduced. The bill was reported in May, and referred to a committee of the House, before whom it was explained, section by section and paragraph by paragraph. After some modifications, the bill was reported to the House, and printed; and its discussion postponed till June. In June, its consideration was taken up, its several provisions explained by the author of the bill, before the two Houses in convention, all questions answered, and after debate, it received the almost unanimous sanction of the House. In the Senate, its consideration was postponed until the people could have an opportunity to examine and pronounce upon it,—measures having been taken to print the bill as passed by the House, with the remarks made by the School Commissioner in explanation of its provisions, and circulated amongst school officers of the several towns. With a new legislature, this bill was taken up in the Senate in June, 1845, a familiar exposition of its provisions made by him (Mr. Barnard,) before that body, the difficulties suggested by school committees were explained, a few modifications introduced, and then passed by a large majority. The House adopted the action of the Senate, postponing the operation of the law until the October session following, that there might still be opportunity for the people to examine the Act, and for the legislature to modify its provisions. The law went into operation on the first of November, 1845. No effort was spared by this department, through circulars, public addresses, and conversations with school officers, to make the transition from the old to the new system, as easy as possible, and to introduce a uniform and efficient administration throughout the State. To this end, a convention of County Inspectors, Town Committees, and District Trustees, including the most experienced school officers and teachers of Rhode Island, after nine months' practical acquaintance with the new system, was held in Providence, at which every difficulty of construction was presented and discussed, forms of proceedings from the first organization of a school district to the laying and collecting of a tax, specimens of school registers, district and town school returns, regulations to be adopted by school committees as to attendance, classification of scholars, gradation of schools, books, examination of teachers and supervision of schools, were brought forward and considered. The results of this convention, and of farther reflection on the subject, were embodied in a pamphlet edition of the school laws, and distributed to every school officer.

2. Something has been done under the new law to furnish the public schools with spacious, attractive, and convenient school-houses. The attention of parents and school officers was early, earnestly, and perseveringly called to the almost necessary connection between a good school-house and a good school, and to the immense injury done to the comfort and health of children by the too common neglect of ventilation, temperature and furniture of school-rooms. The subject was

introduced into every public address, as a preliminary step in the work of educational improvement. Six thousand pamphlets containing a variety of plans of school-houses, for large and small districts, and for schools of different grades, were scattered over the State. Plans and details of construction were gratuitously furnished to builders and committees. Efforts were made to get up at least one model house in each county, in which the true principles of school architecture should be carried out, and could be seen. Men of wealth and intelligence, in the large districts, were seen and interested in the erection of new and commodious structures—which should be ornamental to the village, and attractive and comfortable to the children. School committees were instructed to withhold the public money from districts whose houses should be considered by them as not *school-worthy*.

The results have more than justified the practicability of these and other efforts—a complete renovation, nay, a revolution, having passed over the school-houses of Rhode Island. Old, dilapidated, repulsive, inconvenient houses have given place to new, neat, attractive, and commodious structures in a majority of the districts. Liberal appropriations have been freely voted, and men of business and taste have accepted the supervision of the expenditure. Rhode Island can now boast of more good school-houses and fewer poor ones, in proportion to the whole number, than any other State.

3. Something has been accomplished in augmenting the amount of school attendance, and especially among young children of both sexes, and girls of over twelve years of age. More children attend school—commencing earlier in life and continuing later, and for a longer period in each year. The statistics on this point for the State can not be given accurately—but it can be stated generally, that whenever a good school-house has been built, a good teacher employed, and public and parental interest has been awakened by addresses and other ways, the attendance has been increased, at least, fifty per cent., and the term prolonged, at least, two months in the year.

4. Something has been done to make the school attendance of children more profitable, by establishing a gradation of schools in the large districts. Upward of one hundred primary schools, under female teachers, have been opened, for the first time, in village districts, for the young children, and in several instances, a high school, in addition to primary and intermediate, has been established.

5. The course of instruction generally, in the State, is more thorough, practical, and complete. The elementary studies are more attended to,—music, linear drawing, composition, and mathematics as applied to practical life, have been introduced into many schools; and all of the studies, in a majority of the schools, are taught after better methods, in better books, and in many schools, with the advantage of the blackboard, globes, outline maps, and other means of illustration. There is not a new school-house, and hardly a school-house of any kind, in the State, which is not supplied with a blackboard. One-third of the districts, or the teachers, have a terrestrial globe and a set of outline maps.

6. Something has been done to secure a uniformity of text books in all the schools of the same towns. In twenty-two towns, the committee have adopted a uniform set of text-books, and in eighteen of these, measures have been adopted, in coöperation with this department, by which these books have been introduced at reduced prices.

7. Something has been done to secure the more extensive and permanent employment of well-qualified teachers, and to put in operation agencies by which the methods of instruction and discipline in all of the schools have been, and will continue to be improved. The provision of the law requiring teachers to be examined, has led to the rejection, in one year, of one hundred and twenty-five applicants—applicants who would quietly have been employed by the districts, and who would have taught in the same old mechanical way as before, but for this provision. The itinerating agency of Mr. W. S. Baker—his familiar, practical lectures; his conversations with teachers, parents, and pupils; his exhibition of improved methods, by classes of pupils at public meetings; and the methods adopted in his own school-room, have done an untold amount of good in leading teachers to their own improvement, and inducing parents and trustees to employ only well qualified teachers. The Teachers' Institutes which have been held in the autumn of each year, for three years past, have helped to train the public to

the appreciation of good teachers, and at the same time to elevate the standard and quicken the spirit of improvement among teachers themselves. The same thing has been done by the meeting of all the teachers of the same and the adjoining towns, for the consideration of topics connected with the classification, instruction, and discipline of schools. The reading of good books on the theory and practice of teaching, more than thirty volumes of which have been brought within the reach of every instructor, and the habit of visiting each other's schools, and especially such schools as have an established reputation, have helped to improve a large number of teachers. Whenever applied to, he (Mr. Barnard) had assisted districts that were disposed to pay adequate wages, in procuring good teachers; and good teachers, in obtaining desirable situations. No better service can be rendered the cause of school improvement in any town, than by introducing into it a good teacher of high moral and literary qualifications. The employment of a large number of female teachers, not only in the primary, but in the district school, in the winter as well as in the summer, has improved the discipline, the moral influence, and the manners of our public schools.

8. The public schools of a majority of the towns have been brought for the first time, under a general system of regulations, and have been subjected to an intelligent, energetic, and vigilant supervision. Men of prompt business habits, large views of education, and a generous public spirit, have consented to act on the school committee. Committees have studied the improvements of the day, and labored to introduce them into the schools.

9. The annual appropriation for the support of public schools, exclusive of large sums voted for the repairs and building of school-houses, has been increased in two-thirds of the towns, since 1844; and in 1847, the aggregate amount raised by tax in the State for the compensation of teachers alone, was nearly double the amount paid out of the General Treasury for the same purpose. In 1846, for the first time in two hundred years, every town in Rhode Island voted and collected a school tax—and it can not yet be ascertained that any town has been made poorer by its appropriation, while it is certain that in every town where the appropriation has been wisely expended, (as it might have been in every town,) better teachers have been employed, and the length of the school term has been prolonged—thus converting a portion of the material wealth of the town into intelligence and virtue, which will hereafter diffuse happiness, create wealth, and preserve it from waste.

10. A beginning has been made in the establishment of town, village, and district libraries, and in arranging courses of popular lectures on subjects of science, art, literature, and practical life.

Before Mr. Barnard left the State, a library of at least five hundred volumes had been secured for at least twenty-nine out of the thirty-two towns; and, there were good reasons to believe that the work, so auspiciously begun, would not be suspended until every town and every large village should be supplied with a library of good books, to carry the blessings and advantages of knowledge to every workshop and every fireside.

Seventeen courses of popular lectures have been established in as many villages, which have already awakened a spirit for reading, disseminating much useful information on subjects of practical importance, suggested topics, and improved the whole tone of conversation, and brought people of widely differing sentiments and habits to a common source of enjoyment.

11. As at once the source of most of the improvements which have thus far been made, and as the pledge of a still greater advance in future, there has been awakened a good degree of parental and public interest on the subject of schools and education. The profound apathy, which hung like a dead man's shroud on the public heart, has disappeared, and parents are beginning to coöperate with school officers and teachers in carrying out the purposes of the law; and, the school interest is fast becoming a prominent interest in the State. Let it once become such,—let men read, think, talk, and act about it, as they do about mak-

ing money, or carrying a political election, or propagating a creed, and Rhode Island will become the model State of the Union. And, why should she not? No other State possesses such facilities. Her territory is small, and every advance in one town or district can easily be known, seen, and felt in every other. Her wealth is abundant,—more abundant, and more equally distributed, than in any other State. Her population is concentrated in villages, which will admit of the establishment of public schools of the highest grades. The occupations of the people are diverse, and this is at once an element of power and safety. Commerce will give expansion; manufactures, and the mechanical arts, will give activity, power, invention, and skill; and agriculture, the prudence and conservatism which should belong to the intellectual character and habits of a people. Rhode Island has a large city, to which the entire population of the State is brought by business or pleasure every year, and which should impart a higher tone of manners, intelligence, and business, than can exist in a state without a capital: and, fortunately, Providence has set a noble example to the rest of the State, in her educational institutions,—in the provision of her citizens for schools, libraries, and institutions of religion and benevolence. Rhode Island, too, has a history,—her own peculiar history, and her great names,—the names of Williams, and Clark, of Green, and Perry, of Brown and Slater, are a rich inheritance, and make her sons and daughters, who remove into other States, proud of their parental home.

Although satisfied that a good beginning had been made in the organization of a system of public instruction, and in the improved school habits of the people, Mr. Barnard did not deceive himself or the Legislature, with the impression that nothing more was to be done. On the other hand, no voice was more earnest than his in demanding renewed and continued efforts.

But, let no Rhode Islander forget the immense fund of talent which has slumbered in unconsciousness, or been only half developed, in the country towns of this State, by reason of the defective provision for general education. Let the past four years be the first years of a new era,—an era in which education, universal education, the complete and thorough education of every child born or living in the State,—shall be realized. Let the problem be solved,—how much waste by vice and crime can be prevented, how much the productive power of the State can be augmented, how far happy homes can be multiplied by the right cultivation of the moral nature, and the proportionate development of the intellectual faculties of every child; how much more, and how much better, the hand can work when directed by an intelligent mind; how inventions for abridging labor can be multiplied by cultivated and active thought; in fine, how a State of one hundred and fifty thousand people can be made equal to a State of ten times that number,—can be made truly an Empire State, ruling by the supremacy of mind, and the moral sentiments. All this can be accomplished by filling the State with educated mothers, well qualified teachers, and good books, and bringing these mighty agencies to bear directly, and under the most favorable circumstances, upon every child and every adult.

As fellow-laborers in a common field, he would say to all, teachers, school officers, and citizens, persevere in the measures which have thus far been adopted, and adopt others more efficient. Act directly, and, by all available means, on the public mind; quicken, enlighten, and direct aright the popular intelligence, as the source of all practical legislation, and judicious action on the subject of schools. Secure every advance in popular intelligence and feeling by judicious legal enactment,—for public sentiment and action will not long remain in advance of the law. See to it, that the children of the State, and especially those who live in the lanes and alleys of your city, or labor in your mills and shops, are gathered regularly, during their school years, into good schools. Establish institutions of industry, and reformation, for vagrant children, and juvenile criminals. Educate well, if you can educate only one sex, the female children, so that every home shall have an educated mother. Bring the mighty stimulus of the living voice, and well-matured thought on great moral, scientific, literary, and practical topics, to bear on the whole community, so far as it can be gathered together to listen to popular

lectures. Introduce into every town, and every family, the great and the good of all past time, of this and other countries, by means of public libraries of well-selected books. And, above all, provide for the professional training, the permanent employment and reasonable compensation of teachers, and, especially, of female teachers, for upon their agency in popular education must we rely for a higher style of manners, morals, and intellectual culture.

It was a sore trial for Mr. Barnard to resign before he had fully consummated his plans and agencies for the improvement of public education in Rhode Island;—efficient regulations to secure the punctual and regular attendance of all children of a suitable age, in some school, public or private;—a library of books of reference for the teacher and older scholars in every school, and of circulation in every village;—a course of popular lectures adapted to the condition of education and employment of each section of the State, as supplementary to the instruction of the schools;—a public high school in every town, for girls as well as boys, with a course of study preparatory, on the one hand, for admission to college, and, on the other, to the pursuit of navigation, agriculture, manufactures, or the mechanic arts;—State scholarships, to entitle deserving young men from any town, to the privileges of a literary or scientific course in the university, or in county seminaries, to be established for this purpose;—a series of educational and charitable associations to be aided by the State to meet special wants, viz.: an orphan agency, to seek out the right sort of families, in which to place fatherless and motherless children, for a good industrial and domestic training;—a school of industry for truant, idle, and neglected children before they have become tainted or convicted of crime;—a reform school for young criminals, distributed in small rural colonies, or families, where they can be subjected to restraint and supervision, and, at the same time, to the humanizing influences of domestic life; a house of refuge for adult criminals to pass a period of severe but voluntary probation, and support themselves for a time, until they could again enter society with confirmed habits of temperance, industry, and self-control, and by a reasonable hope of escaping or withstanding the temptations by which they originally fell;—and, training institutions, or classes of special study and practice, not only for teachers of public schools, but for conductors of the several special schools above enumerated. Mr. Barnard, however, was not permitted to prosecute his undertaking any further. He had succeeded in supplanting an inefficient and imperfect system of public schools by one which possessed great capabilities of adaptation to the differing circumstances of city and country, and had gathered about its administration, public confidence. The state of his health precluded his discharging any longer, satisfactorily to himself, the labors he had before performed. He was urged on every hand to diminish the

sphere of his activity, and still retain the general direction of the educational movement, so happily begun under his auspices. But, with a feverish anxiety to work out to the full circumference of his duty in any official position, he knew there would be no rest to body or mind until he was out of office, and he therefore tendered his resignation. He did not write out his final report, as he had contemplated doing, but was invited by the Legislature to make an oral communication to the two Houses in Joint Convention, on the condition and improvement of the public schools. His address on this occasion is characterized by the *Providence Journal* "as most eloquent and impressive, and was listened to, for nearly two hours, with almost breathless attention." The following resolution was adopted by the unanimous vote of the Senate and House of Representatives, and the Governor was instructed to communicate the same to Mr. Barnard:—

Resolved, unanimously, that the thanks of this General Assembly be given to the Hon. Henry Barnard, for the able, faithful, and judicious manner in which he has, for the last five years, fulfilled the duties of Commissioner of Public Schools in the State of Rhode Island.

"There are few spectacles," says a writer in the *North American Review*, on the recent school movement in Rhode Island, "more worthy to excite an ardent yet rational enthusiasm, than the movement of a commonwealth, in a united purpose, and with resolute will, toward the accomplishment of any important end touching the moral or intellectual welfare of its citizens. When the value of the object is perceived by the mass of the people, and accepted by them as an interest for which they care and are ready to labor, our hopes for the progress of the race are confirmed and elevated. But, when a people are seen to recognize a great deficiency in the means of education, and, with one mind to take vigorous and rapid measures for its removal, they deserve indeed the highest praise. The efforts of the people of Rhode Island for their schools have been peculiar, in respect to the work which they had to accomplish, to the rapidity of the reform, to the unanimity and zeal with which it has been executed, to the permanent results which have been attained, and to the still higher promise for the future, of which these results give the assurance."

As soon as it was known that Mr. Barnard had determined to retire from the office of School Commissioner, the teachers of the State, through a committee appointed at the several Institutes, held in the autumn of 1849, presented him a silver pitcher, as a testimonial of their respect and friendship, and of their appreciation of his services in the cause of education, and of the interest which he had ever taken

in their professional improvement and individual welfare. The following correspondence took place on the occasion :—

To Hon. Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.

DEAR SIR :—The teachers assembled at the several Institutes which were held in the State during the past year, on learning your intention of closing your official connection with the schools of Rhode Island, appointed the undersigned a committee to express their regret at your departure, and to present you some token of their appreciation of your services in the cause of education, and of the interest which you have always manifested in their professional improvement and individual welfare.

Of the extent of your labors in preparing the way for the thorough re-organization of our system of public schools, and in encountering successfully the many difficulties incident to the working of a new system, few of us can, probably, be aware.

But, we can speak from personal knowledge of the value of the Teachers' Institutes, which have from time been held by your appointment, and provided (too often, we fear, at your expense) with skillful and experienced instructors and practical lecturers; and, of the many books and pamphlets on education and teaching, which you have scattered broadcast over the State.

We can speak, too, of what the teachers of the State know from daily observation,—many of them from happy experience,—of the great change,—nay, revolution,—which you have wrought in our school architecture; by which, old, dilapidated, and unsightly district school-houses have given way for the many new, attractive, commodious, and healthy edifices which now adorn our hills and valleys.

We have seen, too, and felt the benefits of the more numerous and regular attendance of scholars, of the uniformity of text-books, the more vigilant supervision of school committees, and the more lively and intelligent interest and co-operation of parents in our labors, which have been brought about mainly by your efforts.

The fruits of your labors may also be seen in the courses of popular lectures which are now being held, and in the well-selected town, village, and district libraries, which you have assisted in establishing, and which are already scattering their life-giving influence through our beloved State.

In the consciousness of having been the main instrumentality in effecting these changes, for which the generations yet unborn will bless your memory, you have your own best reward. But, in behalf of the members of the Institutes, we ask you to accept the accompanying gift, as a small token of gratitude for these your labors, of their personal regard and friendship, and of their appreciation of your services in the cause of education in general, and to our profession in particular. We only wish it were more worthy of your acceptance.

Receive it, Sir, with our best wishes for your welfare. May your future course be as honorable to yourself, as the past has been useful to the children and youth of Rhode Island.

And, believe us, Sir, in behalf of the teachers of the State, your sincere and obedient servants,

ROBERT ALLYN, JENES MOWAY, SOLOMON P. WELLS, FANNY J. BURGE, JANE FIFIELD, SYLVESTER PATTERSON, GEORGE W. DODGE.

PROVIDENCE, January 30, 1849.

PROVIDENCE, January 31, 1849.

To Messrs. Allyn, &c.

I feel deeply impressed by the honor you have done me in your communication of the 30th instant, and by the elegant and valuable present which accompanied the same, in the name of a large number of the teachers of Rhode Island. I shall ever bear in grateful remembrance the numberless acts of personal kindness and willing co-operation in my official labors which I have received from teachers both of public and private schools since my first connection with the cause of education in this State, and I accept this parting testimonial of their friendship, and too partial appreciation of my labors, as Commissioner of Public Schools, with a sense of

obligation greater than I can express. If, during the past five years, anything has been done to increase the facilities for individual and professional improvement enjoyed by teachers, and to raise the social and pecuniary estimation in which their services are held and rewarded; if any advance has been made toward the better organization and administration of a system of public schools, and the more thorough, complete, and practical education of the whole people, these results are the sum total of innumerable contributions, all of them as meritorious, and many of them, I doubt not, more important than my own. Every teacher who has, with or without the help of books, institutes, and sympathizing friends, made his school better than he found it; every school officer who has aimed faithfully to understand and execute all the details in the local administration of the new system; every person who, by his voice, his pen, his vote, his pecuniary aid, or his personal influence, has contributed to the earnest awakening of the Legislature and the people to the importance of this much-neglected public interest, and in favor of liberal and efficient measures of educational reform, has labored with me in a common field of usefulness, and is entitled to whatever of credit may be attached to a successful beginning of the enterprise.

Such is the nature of the ever-extending results of educational labor, that if a successful beginning has been made in any department of this field, no matter how small may be the measure of success, we should feel amply rewarded for our exertions, and, with love, hope, and patience in our hearts, we should hold on and hold out to the end. Whoever else may fail or falter, may every teacher in the State persevere until Rhode Island stands acknowledged before the world the model State, for her wise system of popular education. Then will her workshops be filled with intelligent, inventive, and contented laborers; her cities and villages be crowned with institutions of religion, benevolence, and charity, and every home throughout her borders be made a circle of un fading smiles.

The cause of true education, of the complete education of every human being, without regard to the accidents of birth or fortune, is worthy of the concentration of all our powers, and, if need be, of any sacrifice of time, money, and labor, we may be called upon to make in its behalf. Ever since the Great Teacher condescended to dwell among men, the progress of this cause has been upward and onward, and its final triumph has been longed for, and prayed for, and believed in, by every lover of his race. And, although there is much that is dark and despairing in the past and present condition of society, yet, when we study the nature of education, and the necessity and capabilities of improvement all around us, with the sure word of prophecy in our hands, and with the evidence of what has already been accomplished, the future rises bright and glorious before us; and, on its forehead is the morning star, the herald of a better day than has yet dawned on our world. In this sublime possibility,—nay, in the sure word of God,—let us, in our hours of doubt and despondency, reassure our hope, strengthen our faith, and confirm the unconquerable will. The cause of education can not fail, unless all the laws which have heretofore governed the progress of society shall cease to operate, and Christianity shall prove to be a fable, and liberty a dream. May we all hasten on its final triumph by following the example of the Great Teacher, in doing good according to our means and opportunity; and, may each strive to deserve, at the end of life, the epitaph of one, 'in whose death mankind lost a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy.'

With renewed assurance of my gratitude for the kindness expressed in your communication, and for the honor of this present, and, with my best wishes for the individual welfare of every teacher in the State, I remain

Your friend and obedient servant,

HENRY BARNARD.

Mr. Barnard was requested by a committee of citizens from different parts of the State to sit for his portrait, which was painted by Lincoln, of Providence, and presented to the Rhode Island Historical Society.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE R. ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

Abstract of Official Records.

In December, 1844, a preliminary meeting was held at Providence, at the suggestion of Henry Barnard, State Agent of Public Schools, to consider the subject of a State organization of teachers, school officers, and friends of education. Nathan Bishop presided, and Messrs. John Kingsbury, H. Day, A. Perry, N. Bishop, and J. J. Stimpson were appointed a committee to report upon the formation of a "State Society for the promotion of Public School Education." On January 21st, 1845, a second meeting was called by the chairman of the committee, Wilkins Updike presiding, when a report was made in favor of such an association, and a discussion followed, from Messrs. H. Barnard, N. Bishop, T. C. Hartshorn, W. Gammell, T. H. Gallaudet, W. Updike, and J. S. Tourtellott. A draft of a constitution for an Association, to be styled the "Rhode Island Institute of Instruction," was presented by Mr. Barnard, and the whole matter was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. H. Barnard, N. Bishop, J. T. Sisson, J. Kingsbury, A. Bosworth, T. R. Hazard, W. Gammell, and G. King.

On the 24th of January, 1845, was held the *First Meeting* of the Institute, W. Updike in the chair. The committee reported favorably on the draft of a Constitution prepared by Mr. Barnard, which was adopted. After remarks upon "*The general interests of Education in Rhode Island*" by Messrs. H. Barnard, F. Wayland, A. Caswell, C. Farnum, Osgood, J. T. Sisson, N. Bishop, and C. G. Perry, a committee was appointed to nominate officers.

Second Meeting.—January 28th, 1845, at Providence.

An election of officers was made, and John Kingsbury chosen the first president of the Institute. The officers elected at this and the subsequent annual meetings are shown in the accompanying list (A.) of the officers of the Institute.

Prof. Gammell offered resolutions commendatory of the objects of the Institute, which were discussed by Messrs. L. Haile, J. S. Pitman, H. Day, C. Farnum, H. Barnard, N. Bishop, G. L. Dwight, and Rev. Mr. Waterman.

Third Meeting.—February 19th, 1845, at East Greenwich.

Addresses upon "*The Educational wants of Rhode Island*," by W. Updike, and H. Barnard.

Remarks upon "*The Importance of Education*," by S. Vernon, and J. Durfee.

Fourth Meeting.—February 28th, and March 1st and 2d, 1845, at Woonsocket.

Addresses upon "*The Condition of Schools in Rhode Island*," by W. Updike, and H. Barnard; "*The evils of a misdirected Education*," by H. Barnard.

Discussions upon "*School-houses; their location, construction, &c.*" by Messrs. J. B. Tallman, C. Farnum, S. S. Greene, W. A. Steere, A. Harkness, J. Kingsbury, J. D. Giddings, and H. Barnard; "*The causes of Failure in Teaching*," by J. Kingsbury; "*Method of teaching Spelling*," by Messrs. Barnard, Farnum, G. C. Wilson, T. Davis, and S. Bushee; "*Method of teaching Reading*," by Messrs. Barnard, Farnum, Giddings, and others; "*Music as a branch of Education in Schools*," by Messrs. S. W. Coggeshall, Tallman, Giddings and Barnard; "*Means of securing Regularity and Punctuality of Attendance*," by Rev. J. Boyden; "*Methods of conducting School Examinations*," by H. Barnard.

Fifth Meeting.—June 25th and 26th, 1845, at Newport.

Addresses by Messrs. Gammell, Thayer, L. B. Smith, Brooks, Barnard, F. Brown, E. Clark, Terry, and J. S. Tourtellott.

Sixth Meeting.—September 12th, 1845, at Warren.

Discussions upon school subjects, by Messrs. Barnard, T. R. Hazard, Dr. Moore, Hathaway, J. P. Tustin, and others.

Addresses upon "*The connection between Common School Education and State Prosperity*," by Prof. Gammell; "*How Parents may second the efforts of Teachers*," by Rev. T. Shepard. "*Methods of securing the regular Attendance of Pupils*," by A. Perry, followed by Messrs. Barnard, Tustin, and others.

Seventh Meeting.—September 19th and 20th, 1845, at Valley Falls.

Remarks upon "*A plan of Gradation for Schools*," by Messrs. Barnard and Bishop; "*Stability of population promoted by good Schools*," by T. M. Burgess; "*Punctuality and regularity of Attendance*," by Messrs. H. Day and J. T. Sisson.

Discussions on "*Methods of managing and disciplining Schools*," by Messrs. G. A. Willard, Crowell, J. B. Tallman, Sisson, Kingsbury, Farnum, Gay, Harkness, Giddings, Wilkinson, Benson, and T. Davis; "*Methods of Improvement of the Schools of the Village*," by Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, and Day.

Eighth Meeting.—September 26th and 27th, 1845, at Chepachet.

Addresses on "*Public Schools the only available means of a General Education*," by J. Kingsbury; "*The importance of Moral Education*," by Rev. Mr. Cheney; "*My experience as a Pupil and a Teacher*," by C. Farnum; "*The importance of a radical change in our System of Public Education*," by H. Barnard, followed by Messrs. Perry, D. G. Grosvenor, and Tourtellott.

Ninth Meeting.—September 30th, 1845, at Olneyville.

Address "*On Schools good enough for the Rich, and cheap enough for the Poor*," by H. Barnard.

Discussions by Messrs. Farnum, Day, and Harkness.

Remarks on "*The importance of paying respect to the Teacher's office*," by O. Angell.

Tenth Meeting.—October 4th, 1845, at Pawtuxet.

Addresses "*On the importance of gradation of Schools*," by N. Bishop and H. Barnard; On "*Uniformity of education necessary to solid equilibrium*," by Rev. Mr. Osgood.

Remarks on "*The warming of school-houses*," by Messrs. Hartshorn and Barnard.

Eleventh Meeting.—October 7th, 1845, at Fruit Hill.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, Day, Harkness and Belden.

Twelfth Meeting.—October 10th, 1845, at Scituate.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, E. W. Baker, and Rev. H. Quimby.

Thirteenth Meeting.—October 14th, 1845, at Foster, Hemlock Village.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Barnard, and others; on "*Town Libraries*," by H. Barnard.

Fourteenth Meeting.—October 30th, 1845, at Kingston.

Address on "*The value of a good education in a commercial point of view*," by Dr. Wayland.

Remarks on "*Educational wants and defects*," by Messrs. Kingsbury and W. S. Baker; "*The proper construction of school-houses*," by Messrs. Colgrove and Vernon; "*The means and importance of securing good teachers*," by Messrs. Goodwin, Davis, and Baker; "*The means of increasing the effectiveness of schools in the coming winter*," by H. Barnard.

Fifteenth Meeting.—December 19th and 20th, 1845, at Bristol.

Addresses upon "*Punctuality*," and other subjects, by Messrs. Kingsbury, N. B. Cook, T. Shepard, Sykes, J. Gushee, Bosworth, Bishop, and Barnard.

Discussions upon "*Methods of Discipline and Instruction*."

Sixteenth Meeting—SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—January 15th, 1846, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee; Election of Officers.

Remarks by Messrs. T. Shepard, W. Russell, of Boston, Dr. Wayland, Vernon, Updike, Bishop, Caswell, Barnard, and others.

Seventeenth Meeting.—January 30th and 31st, 1846, at Pawtucket.
Remarks on "*Who should be employed as Public School Teachers,*" by N. Bishop; "*The rights of children to an Education,*" by H. Day; "*The duty of Parents in regard to School Discipline,*" by Dr. Carpenter.

Discussions on "*Neatness in School-houses,*" by Messrs. G. C. Wilson, G. A. Willard, Giddings, Wickes, and Sisson; "*The classification of Schools and use of Monitors,*" by Messrs. Barnard, Giddings, Perry, Wilkinson, Benson, and Wickes; "*The value of Female Teachers,*" by Messrs. Barnard, Blodgett, Rounds, Willard, Wilkinson, and Boyden; "*The use of the Bible as a School Book,*" by Messrs. J. Boyden, Hyde, Blodgett, Rounds, Willard, Farnsworth, Wickes, Perry, and Farnum; "*Corporal Punishment,*" by Messrs. Day, Farnum, Perry, Willard, Sisson, Wilson, Rounds, Benson, and Barnard.

Addresses by Messrs. Willard, Sisson, and Barnard.

Eighteenth Meeting—THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—January 7th, 1847, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee; Election of Officers.

Resolved, on motion of Dr. Wayland, that the Board of the Institute take measures to promote the establishment of District School Libraries through the State.

A committee was appointed to memorialize the Legislature for an appropriation for the purpose of distributing the "*Journal of the R. I. Institute of Instruction*" to the districts.

Remarks on "*The Improvements effected in the Schools of Rhode Island,*" by Messrs. T. H. Vail, Whipple, A. Ballou, A. J. Manchester, Baker, Bishop, and Hunter.

Nineteenth Meeting.—February 6th, 1847, at Smithfield.

Address by W. Updike.

Discussion on "*Methods of Government available in the Country,*" by Messrs. Farnum, Giddings, and Harkness.

Lesson in Elocution, by F. Russell.

Twentieth Meeting.—February 19th, 1847, at Apponaug Village.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Updike, Baker, and Barnard.

Lecture on Elocution, by F. Russell.

Twenty-first Meeting.—February 20th, 1847, at Knightsville.

Addresses by Messrs. Barnard, Baker, Kingsbury, and Updike.

Lecture on Elocution, by F. Russell.

Drill of the pupils of W. S. Baker, in Elocution and Arithmetic.

Twenty-second Meeting.—February 27th, 1847, at Johnston.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Harkness, Whiting, Waterman, Baker, and Updike.

Twenty-third Meeting.—March 19th, 1847, at Crampton Mills.

Address, by Mr. Whitney.

Discussions.

Exercises in Geography, Arithmetic, Singing, &c., by the scholars of several neighboring schools, by Mr. Baker.

Twenty-fourth Meeting.—September 11th, 1847, at Chepachet, on occasion of the dedication of a new school building.

Address on "*Architecture as connected with Education,*" by J. Kingsbury; "*The Advantages of a good Education to Individuals and the Community,*" by Dr. Wayland.

Remarks on "*The relations of Parents and Teachers,*" by Messrs. Bishop, Fowle, and Brown.

Twenty-fifth Meeting—FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 21st and 25th, 1848, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee.

Remarks on "*Progress of Education in Rhode Island,*" by Messrs. Vail, Updike, Sisson, Barnard, and Bishop; "*Town Libraries and Popular Lectures,*" by Mr. Osgood; "*The duties of Parents to their Schools,*" by N. Bishop.

Address on "*The Progress and Condition of Schools in Rhode Island*," by H. Barnard.

Twenty-sixth Meeting.—At Newport.

Remarks on "*The Condition of Schools*," by Messrs. Updike, Weedon, Barnard, and Whipple.

Twenty-seventh Meeting.—FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 29th, 1849, at Providence.

Report of Executive Committee; Election of Officers.

Resolved, on motion of Prof. Gammell (discussed on the two previous meetings), that Education in Rhode Island will need the fostering care of the Legislature, the continued attention of our efficient commissioner, and the hearty cooperation of all classes of citizens.

Remarks on "*The Condition and Statistics of Education in the State*," by H. Barnard; "*Female Teachers*," by Messrs. Bishop and Baker; "*The Condition of Schools*," by Messrs. Porter, Hartshorn, and Hall.

Twenty-eighth Meeting.—February 5th, 1849, at Providence.

Address on "*The Origin of the Public Schools of Providence*," by E. M. Stone.

Remarks on "*The Condition of Schools*," by Messrs. Clark, Barber, Baker, Oranston, and S. Patterson; "*The need of Evening Schools in Providence*," by E. M. Stone.

A committee appointed (Messrs. Hartshorn, Dumont, Shepard, Updike, and Harris) to prepare a statement respecting the school fund, and memorialize the people upon the importance of leaving it intact.

Voted, unanimously, that the president express to Mr. Barnard, on his resignation of the office of Commissioner of Public Schools, the high sense entertained by the Institute, of his labors in behalf of the Institute and of the State.

Twenty-ninth Meeting.—SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 18th and 24th, 1850, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Address on "*A Normal School in connection with Brown University*," by N. Bishop, with remarks by Dr. Wayland, and others.

Resolutions approving of the establishment of a State Normal School, recommending monthly meetings from October to March, with lectures, &c.

Thirtieth Meeting.—February 1st, 1850, at Providence.

Lecture on "*The Duties and Qualifications of Teachers*," by W. D. Swan, with remarks by Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, Mowry, and others.

Thirty-first Meeting.—March 8th, 1850, at Providence.

Address on "*Guyot's Physical Geography*," by J. Kingsbury, followed by Messrs. Perry and Goodwin.

Thirty-second Meeting.—October 18th, 1850, at Providence.

Address on "*The Brain*," by Dr. Ray.

Thirty-third Meeting.—November 1st, 1850, at Providence.

Address on "*The True Teacher*," by J. D. Philbrick.

Thirty-fourth Meeting.—January 17th, 1851, at Providence.

Address on "*The relations of Parents to their Children in regard to Education*," by N. Bishop.

Remarks on "*The Condition of the poor Children of Providence*," by various speakers.

Thirty-fifth Meeting.—SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—February 9th, 1851, at Providence.

Report from the Treasurer; Officers elected.

Lecture on "*The facilities enjoyed by Rhode Island for promoting Civilization*," by Dr. Wayland.

Thirty-sixth Meeting.—EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 23d, 1852, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Address on "*The Harmony of Public Schools with our Institutions*," by Dr. Sears.

Thirty-seventh Meeting.—February 20th, 1852, at Providence.

Lecture on "*Drawing*," by Prof. Whitaker.

Thirty-eighth Meeting.—March 19th, 1852, at Providence.

Address on "*Geography*," by Prof. Guyot.

Thirty-ninth Meeting.—April 2d, 1852, at Providence.

Address on "*Teaching Arithmetic*," by D. P. Colburn.

Fortieth Meeting.—NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 19th, 1853, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Address on "*The need of Compulsory Laws for attendance at School*," by J. Bates; "*School Instruction in Manners*," by G. H. Tillinghast.

Forty-first Meeting.—TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 17th, 1854, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Address on "*Educational Progress, and the need of a Board of Education*," by J. Kingsbury, with remarks by Messrs. S. S. Green, E. R. Potter, A. Perry, and E. M. Stone, upon a State Normal School, Moral and Physical Education, and School Examinations.

Report from G. H. Tillinghast advising the use of a text-book entitled the "*Morals of Manners*."

Remarks on "*Reading*," by Mr. Sumner, of the Normal School.

Forty-second Meeting.—ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 24th, 25th, and 26th, 1855, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee; Officers elected.

Address on "*The unconscious Tuition of the Teacher*," by F. D. Huntington.

Lectures on "*Methods for promoting Intellectual Culture by the Teachers*," by D. P. Colburn; "*Physical Geography*," by Prof. Guyot; "*Manner of teaching Physical Geography*," by Prof. Guyot; "*The relation of the State to Popular Education*," by Dr. Sears; "*Reading*," by Dr. Sears; "*The influence of the Earth's form upon Human Development*," by Prof. Guyot; "*The Glaciers of Switzerland*," by Prof. Guyot.

Resolutions recommending the establishment of free public evening schools in the manufacturing villages and larger towns; moved by S. Austin, and discussed by Messrs. Stone, Green, Tillinghast, and Arnold;—that in Normal Schools, instruction in the art of teaching should be the main object, and that a high standard of culture should be a pre-requisite to admission; reported by a committee, and discussed by Messrs. Perry, Vail, Willard, Nash, Greene, Stone, and Colburn;—recommending the establishment of an educational Journal, under the supervision of the Commissioner, and referring the subject to his action; reported by a committee, and discussed by Messrs. Perry and Vail;—welcoming the new Commissioner of Public Schools, Rev. Robert Allyn.

Forty-third Meeting.—TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 24th and 25th, 1856, at Providence.

Election of officers; S. S. Green elected President, J. Kingsbury declining a reelection.

Addresses on "*The Importance of thorough Elementary Instruction*," by A. R. Pope; "*The Value of the Popular Educator to the Community*," by W. W. Hopkin; "*The varied Duties of a faithful Teacher*," by Rt. Rev. T. M. Clark; "*Educational Progress in Rhode Island*," by J. Kingsbury.

Resolutions of thanks to J. Kingsbury for his able, faithful, and long continued services.

A committee reported favorably respecting the "*R. I. Schoolmaster*," and a corresponding committee for that Journal was appointed.

Messrs. Leach, Allyn, and Stone were appointed to coöperate with the Legislature in obtaining facts respecting truancy and vagrancy. Discussion by Messrs. Allyn, Leach, Stone, Cook, Boyden, Grover, and others.

Report from a committee recommending to the attention of teachers a book entitled "Morals of Manners," by Miss C. M. Sedgwick.

Forty-fourth Meeting—THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 31st, 1857, at Providence.

Report from the Treasurer; Election of Officers.

Messrs. Greene and Stone appointed to solicit from the General Assembly an appropriation in favor of the "R. I. Schoolmaster."

Forty-fifth Meeting.—May 28th and 29th, 1857, at Newport.

Addresses on "Education," by G. H. Calvert; "*The chief Defects of Home Education*," by Rev. W. Burton; "*Mathematical Studies*," by Rev. W. Stow.

Remarks on "*The advantages of the social position of the Teacher*," by W. Burton; "*The duties of Teachers in the Government and Moral Training of Children*," by Messrs. Allyn, Colburn, Burton, and Tenney.

Discussion on "*Capacity to govern without Corporal Punishment, the highest qualification of the Teacher*," by Messrs. Hazard, Allyn, Stow, and Burton.

Forty-sixth Meeting—FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—February 6th, 1858, at Providence.

Election of Officers; Report of the Treasurer; balance on hand, \$1,141.16.

Resolutions recommending the farther increase of Evening Schools, and free Public Libraries; on motion of S. Austin, seconded by Rev. E. M. Stone.

Messrs. Greene and Leach were appointed to arrange with the Commissioner for meetings of the Institute in different parts of the State.

[The Records of six meetings are not preserved, and all the following numbers are increased by that number.]

Fifty-third Meeting—FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—February 27th, 1859, at Providence.

Report of the Treasurer; Election of Officers.

The Commissioner of Public Schools reported meetings of the Institute during the year at North Foster, Chepachet, Crompton, Mashassuc, and two at Valley Falls.

Address on "*Education in the Home*," by Rev. W. Barber.

Fifty-fourth Meeting—SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 20th and 21st, 1860, at Providence.

Election of Officers; Report of the Treasurer.

Discussions on "*Whispering and Intercommunication among Scholars*," by Messrs. Cady, Foster, Smith, Willard, Perry, and Leach; "*Means for securing Attention in School*," by Messrs. Gammell, Foster, Ladd, Mowry, and De Munn; "*The Influence of Education upon the Community*," by Messrs. A. H. Clapp, J. B. Chapin, Sears, Stone, and Leach; "*Written Examinations*," by Messrs. Manchester, De Munn, and Snow.

Remarks on "*Means of securing punctual and regular Attendance at School*," by A. W. Godding.

The "R. I. Schoolmaster" was made the organ of the Institute, and a Board of Editors appointed, after discussion by Messrs. Mowry, Ladd, Foster, Snow, Godding, Robbins, Perry, Stone, Kent, Pierce, and Gammell.

Statement of "*The progress of Education in Rhode Island, and of the work of the Institute*," by E. M. Stone.

Resolutions of sympathy in the loss by death of John J. Stimpson and Dana P. Colburn.

Fifty-fifth Meeting.—September 7th and 8th, 1860, at Bristol.

Lectures on "*Obstacles in the way of Intellectual Progress*," by Dr. Chapin; "*Normal Schools, their origin, history, claims, and results*," by Rev. B. G. Northrop; "*Means of obtaining a Knowledge of the English Language*," by J. Kendall; "*Vivacity in the Teacher*," by D. Goodwin; "*Physical Training*," by Dr. D. Lewis.

Discussions on "*Too great attention to Arithmetic in our Schools*," by Messrs. Cady, Kendall, De Munn, Snow, Robbins, Manchester, and Ladd; "*The Subjects of the Lectures*," by Messrs. Mowry, Pierce, Northrup, Ladd, De Munn,

Kendall, Chase, Mathewson, and Gallup; "*The interests of the R. I. Schoolmaster*," by Messrs. De Munn, Mowry, Cady, Kendall, and Willard.

Fifty-sixth Meeting.—October 12th, 1860, at East Greenwich.
Lectures by Messrs. J. M. Talbot, J. Kendall, and Dr. Lewis.

Fifty-seventh Meeting.—December 7th, 1860, at Blackstone.
Lectures by Messrs. S. S. Green, H. K. Oliver, and W. A. Mowry.

Fifty-eighth Meeting.—January 18th and 19th, 1861, at Centerville.
Lecture on "*Education*," by Rev. A. Gardener.

Discussions on "*Teaching Arithmetic; its defects, and the better way*," by Messrs. De Munn, Kendall, and Manchester; "*Education of Young Children*," by J. Kendall; "*Usefulness of Public Examinations*," by Messrs. De Munn, Manchester, Ladd, Willard, Snow, Kistler, Spaulding, and Kendall.

Fifty-ninth Meeting.—SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 25th and 26th, 1861, at Providence.

Report of the Treasurer; Election of Officers, and of Board of Editors for the "*R. I. Schoolmaster*."

Lectures on "*The relation of Mental Philosophy to Education*," by B. G. Northrop; "*The Sea*," by Rev. L. Swain.

Discussion on "*The mechanical performance of Arithmetical Operations*," by Messrs. Willard, Stone, Leach, Green, Mowry, Ladd, Eastman, Pierce, Snow, Manchester, De Munn, Austin, and Kendall.

Sixtieth Meeting.—March 1st and 2d, 1861, at South Kingston.

Lectures on "*Unwritten History*," by Rev. A. Woodbury; "*Writing*," by S. A. Potter.

Discussions on "*Means of securing punctual and constant attendance at School*," by Messrs. Gardener, Tefft, Patten, De Munn, and Phelps; "*Reading*," by Messrs. Grosvenor, Briggs, Thurber, Leach, Potter, De Munn, Snow, Tefft, Gardener, and Tucker; "*The best method of Teaching Arithmetic*," by Messrs. Tefft, Snow, and De Munn.

Sixty-first Meeting.—November 22d and 23d, 1861, at Carolina Mills.

Lectures on "*Education*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*The most important requisites in Teaching*," by J. J. Ladd; "*Class Recitations*," by J. Kendall.

Discussion on "*The present Duties of Teachers to their Country*," by Messrs. Greene, Stanton, Cady, Tillinghast, Kendall, Tefft, Seamans, Bailey, De Munn, and Ladd.

Resolved that contributions of one cent from each scholar be solicited, for the aid of wounded soldiers.

Sixty-second Meeting.—December 20th and 21st, 1861, at Peacedale.

Lectures on "*The relation of the Mind to the Body*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*Teaching Letters and Spelling*," by J. Kendall.

Discussions on "*Guarding Children against Temptation, or teaching them to resist it*," by Messrs. Tefft, Maryot, M. S. Greene, Rousmaniere, Miller, Gorton, Clark, and Coon; "*Difficulties in Teaching Geography*," by Messrs. Tefft, Green, Tillinghast, Stanton, and others; "*Method of illustrating Decimal Fractions*," by Messrs. Tefft, Davis, Stanton, Tillinghast, Peckham, Bentley, Green, and others; "*Good Order in Schools*," by Messrs. Mowry, Stanton, Briggs, Tillinghast, Kenneth, and Coon; "*Recitations in Reading*," by Messrs. Thurber, Davis, Tefft, Briggs, Miner, and Coon. "*Securing prompt attendance at School*," by Messrs. Clark, Kendall, Stanton, and Mowry.

Remarks on "*The duty of Teachers to their Country*," by W. A. Mowry.

Sixty-third Meeting.—January 4th and 5th, 1862, at Chepachet.

Lectures on "*Principles of true Education, and the difficulties which oppose it*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*Arithmetic and its Abbreviations*," by N. W. De Munn; "*Book-keeping in Common Schools*," by S. A. Potter.

Discussions on "*The best Method of Teaching Writing and Spelling*," "*The connection of Oral and Written Arithmetic*," "*How far English Composition should be taught*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Chase, Brown, Peckham, Mowry, and others; "*The control of Teachers over their Pupils out of School*."

Sixty-fourth Meeting.—EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 31st, and February 1st, 1862, at Providence.

Reports of Treasurer and Recording Secretary; Election of Officers.

Lectures on "*The Comforts and Pleasures of School-keeping*," by Rev. L. Whiting; "*Culture of the Voice*," by S. Monroe; "*English History*," by G. Palmer.

Discussion on "*Good Discipline in School, and how maintained*," by Messrs. Willard, Cady, Mowry, Ladd, G. T. Day, and J. M. Talcott.

Recitations in "*Arithmetic*," conducted by N. W. De Munn; in "*English Grammar*," conducted by A. J. Manchester.

Appointment of a permanent committee to conduct the publication of the "R. I. Schoolmaster."

Resolution, moved by E. M. Stone, recommending an increase of evening schools.

Sixty-fifth Meeting.—February 28th and March 1st, 1862, at Centerville, (Warwick.)

Lectures on "*Writing*," by S. A. Potter; "*The Comforts and Pleasures of School-keeping*," by L. Whiting; "*Spelling*," by J. Kendall; "*The study of the U. S. Constitution in our Schools*," by W. A. Mowry.

Discussion on "*The Teacher's sphere of Usefulness*," by Messrs. Husted, Leader, Brayton, and Cooke.

Recitations in "*English History*," conducted by D. R. Adams; "*The Art of Map-drawing*," conducted by S. A. Briggs.

Sixty-sixth Meeting.—April 11th and 12th, 1862, at Wickford.

Lecture on "*The Teacher; his Works and his Rewards*," by A. J. Manchester.

Discussions on "*The Defects in our Public Schools*," by Messrs. Allen, Chadsey, Slocum, Potter, and others; "*The relative duties of Parents, Teachers, and Pupils*," by Messrs. Ladd, and De Munn; "*Reading*," by Messrs. Manchester and De Munn; "*The present Duties of Teachers to their Country*," by Messrs. Snow, Slocum, and others.

Remarks on "*Penmanship*," by S. A. Potter.

Exercises in "*Reading*," conducted by F. B. Snow.

Sixty-seventh Meeting.—November 21st and 22d, 1862, at Westerly.

Lectures on "*The Qualifications of the Teacher*," by J. Kendall; "*Education out of School*," by Rev. H. Lincoln.

Discussions on "*The Responsibility of Teachers for the Punctuality and Attendance of Scholars*," by Messrs. Kendall, Foster, Griswold, Woodbridge, Tefft, Green, and Whitman; "*Means of making R. Island pupils fair Spellers*," by Messrs. Kendall, Griswold, and Greene; "*Educating a Community to a right Appreciation of good Teachers and Schools*," by Messrs. Tefft, Foster, and Greene; "*The best Method of presenting Decimals and Percentage*," by Messrs. De Munn, Kendall, Foster, Ladd, Greene, and others; "*Elevating the Standard of Schools, and exciting Pupils to greater Diligence*," by Messrs. Kendall and Kenyon.

Sixty-eighth Meeting.—December 5th and 6th, 1862, at Wickford.

Lectures on "*Object Lessons*," by J. Kendall; "*Nature's Hieroglyphs*," by Rev. C. H. Fay.

Discussions on "*The Dependence of Teachers upon Text-books*," "*The Responsibility of Teachers for the lack of a delicate moral tone in their Pupils*," by Messrs. Snow, Kendall, and others.

Sixty-ninth Meeting.—December 19th and 20th, 1862, at Pawtucket.

Lectures on "*The Progress of Public Schools*," by Rev. G. Taft; "*Book-keeping*," by S. A. Potter; "*The Duties of Parent Citizens to their Public Schools*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*The Scholar and his Country*," by Rt. Rev. T. M. Clark.

Poem on "*Nature and its Revelations*," by W. M. Rodman.

Class exercises in "*Spelling*," conducted by J. Kendall, with remarks by Messrs. Snow, Willard, De Munn, and others; "*Reading*," conducted by F. B. Snow.

Discussion on "*The moral Influence of Teachers upon their Pupils in and out of School*," by Messrs. Willard, Mowry, Gammell, Ladd, and others.

• *Seventieth Meeting.*—January 9th and 10th, 1863, at Newton, (Portsmouth.)

Lectures on "*The benefits of School Libraries*," by Rev. S. D. Coggsball; "*The true Relations of School and Home, Teacher and Parent*," by T. W. Bicknell; "*The Cultivation of a Taste for the Beauties of Nature*," by I. F. Cady.

Discussions on "*School Libraries*," by Messrs. Kendall, Rousmaniere, Coggsball, and Arnold; "*The Assignment of Lessons to be studied at Home*," by Messrs. Kendall, Arnold, Gifford, and others; "*Preventing Whispering and Motion of the Lips while Studying*," by S. D. Coggsball; "*The Importance of the Coöperation of Parents*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Cady, Belden, and Kendall; "*The Assumption of Unwarranted Authority by Teachers*," by Messrs. Bicknell, Cady, and Belden; "*Method of commencing the Study of Geography*," by Messrs. Cady, Kendall, Chapman, and others.

Seventy-first Meeting.—NINETEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 30th and 31st, 1863, at Providence.

Report of the Treasurer; total amount of funds, \$1,237.61. Election of Officers.

Lectures on "*English Grammar*," by Prof. S. S. Greene; "*The Importance and Mode of training the Senses*," by Rev. B. G. Northrop; "*Physical Geography*," by B. Harrison.

Discussions on "*The Responsibility of the Teacher for the Moral Conduct of his Pupils*," by Messrs. Cady and De Munn; "*English Grammar*," by Messrs. Cady, Willard, Tefft, Belden, Manchester, De Munn, and Northrop; "*The necessity of Sustaining the 'R. I. Schoolmaster'*," by Messrs. Matteson, Northrop, and Ladd.

Class exercises in "*Object Teaching*," conducted by N. A. Calkins; "*Spelling and Reading*," by a class of colored children.

Messrs. Ladd and De Munn appointed to memorialize the Legislature for an act of incorporation.

Seventy-second Meeting.—February 19th and 20th, 1863, at Ashaway.

Lectures on "*The Teacher and his Work*," by J. J. Ladd; "*The Duties of Parents and the Public in regard to Schools*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*School Tactics*," by J. Kendall.

Discussions on "*Methods of securing greater Punctuality in Schools*," by Messrs. Langworthy, Saunders, Greene, Kenneth, Maryott, Davis, Ladd, Collins, Stanton, Vincent, Morton, Coon, Rev. J. Clark, Rev. H. Clark, and Lewis; "*The use of Text-books in Recitations*," by Messrs. Ladd and Kendall.

Class exercises in "*Bassini's Method of Teaching Music*," conducted by J. M. Stillman.

Seventy-third Meeting.—March 6th and 7th, 1863, at Kingston.

Lectures on "*The Scale on which the Universe is built*," by J. Kendall; "*Mental Science*," by H. Rousmaniere.

Poem on "*The Golden Era*," by A. J. Foster.

Discussion on "*The use of Text-books in Recitations*," by Messrs. Kendall, Eastman, Greene, Rousmaniere, Tefft, and others.

Seventy-fourth Meeting.—, at River Point.

Lectures on "*English Grammar*," by A. A. Gamwell; "—," by Rev. J. M. H. Dow.

Discussions on "*The best Method of teaching Geography*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Aldrich, Fuller, Harrison, Seamans, Eldridge, and Gallup; "*The most prominent Faults in our Common Schools*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Matteson, Eastman, Willard, Gamwell, Spaulding, and Kent.

Remarks on "*Penmanship*," by B. Harrison.

Seventy-fifth Meeting.—November 24th and 25th, 1863, at Westerly.

Lectures on "*The Study of the English Language*," by W. A. Mowry; "*Duties of Parents to the School*," by Dr. J. B. Chapin; "*Entrance to the Public High Schools should be determined by Scholarship, ascertained by Competitive Examination*," by Hon. H. Barnard.

Discussions on "*The Extent to which Teachers should Assist their Pupils*," by Messrs. Foster, Greene, Mowry, Chapin, and others; "*The greatest Evil in our Schools, and its remedy*," by Messrs. Ladd, Ames, Mowry, and others.

School Reports were given by Messrs. Greene, Woodbridge, Coon, Tillinghast, Inman, Collins, Foster, Kenyon, Robbins, and Mowry.

Exercises in Gymnastics, by Messrs. Trine and Wood.

Seventy-sixth Meeting.—December 11th and 12th, 1863, at North Scituate.

Lectures on "*The Good Teacher*," by Rev. Lyman Whiting; "*Vitality in the School-room*," by John J. Ladd.

Discussions on "*The extent and mode of the Teacher's help to his pupils in Mathematics*;" "*The use of the Blackboard in English Grammar*;" "*Methods of Teaching Spelling*;" "*Proper and improper penalties for defective recitations or bad conduct*;" "*Typical Recitations*."

Seventy-seventh Meeting.—January 15th and 16th, 1864, at Centerville.

Lectures on "*The Obstacles in the way of successful Teaching*," by J. B. Chapin; "*The Teacher's Motives and Difficulties*," by A. J. Manchester.

Discussions on "*The Schools of Rhode Island compared with those of twenty years ago*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Husted, Adams, Seamans, Stone, and Matteson; "*The Teaching of Music in our Schools*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Gallup, Matteson, Ladd, Spencer, Berry, and Kent; "*The Obstacles to the success of our Schools*," by Messrs. Ladd, Spaulding, Rousmaniere, and Mowry.

Reports from Schools, by Messrs. Kent, Berry, Gallup, Bates, Manchester, Edwards, Eastman, Tefft, Robbins, Spaulding, and Mowry.

Exercises in Gymnastics, by Dr. Wood.

Remarks eulogistic of the lamented D. P. Colburn, by Messrs. Ladd, Mowry, and Austin.

Seventy-eighth Meeting—TWENTIETH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 29th and 30th, 1864, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Lectures on "*Morning Glories*," by J. Kendall; "*Object Teaching*," by I. F. Cady; "*The Study of History*," by Rev. B. Sears; "*The Relation of the Scholar to the Rebellion*," by J. T. Edwards; "*Self Education*," by J. D. Philbrick; "*Physical Geography*," by Prof. S. Tenney; "*The Relations of Parents to the School*," by T. W. Bicknell.

Report on the history and conduct of the "R. I. Schoolmaster" during the year, by N. W. De Munn.

Seventy-ninth Meeting.—February 12th and 13th, 1864, at Woonsocket.

Lectures on "*Familiar Topics*," by J. Kendall; "*Supervision of School*," by Rev. B. S. Northrup; "*Relation of the Scholar to the Rebellion*," by J. T. Edwards; "*Education and Physical Interests*," by Hon. J. P. Chapin.

Discussions on "*Parental Interest in Schools*;" "*Object Teaching as a system*;" "*Physical Culture*;" "*Defects in Public Schools*."

Eightieth Meeting.—June 3d and 4th, 1864, at Harrisville.

Lectures on "*The Education of the Freedmen*," by Rev. A. Root; "*Reading*," by F. B. Snow; "*Primary Geography*," by T. W. Bicknell; "*The Educational Improvements of twenty-five years*," by I. F. Cady.

Discussions on "*The best means of securing Regular Attendance at School*," by Messrs. Steere, Metcalf, and Webb; "*The Evils of a frequent change of Teachers, and the remedy*," by Messrs. Cady, Bicknell, and Mowry; "*Method of Teaching Writing in Common Schools*," by Messrs. Webb, Steere, and others; "*Teaching beginners in Arithmetic the Process before the Reasoning*," by Messrs. Snow and Mowry; "*Requiring Pupils to give Information of Offenses*," by Messrs. Mowry, Cady, Webb, Steere, and others.

(A.)

OFFICERS OF THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE.

PRESIDENTS.—John Kingsbury, 1845-1855. S. S. Greene, 1856-1859. J. J. Ladd, 1860-1863. W. A. Mowry, 1864.

VICE PRESIDENTS.—W. Updike, 1845, 1846. A. Ballou, 1845, 1849. C. G. Perry, 1846, 1847. T. Shepard, 1846, 1847, 1850-1859. J. J. Kelton, 1846-1849. E. R. Potter, 1847-1859. J. S. Tourtellott, 1847. A. H. Dumont, 1848-1859. J. W. Cooke, 1848, 1849. J. Boyden, Jr., 1850-1855, 1858, 1859, 1862-1864. E. Harris, 1850-1859. R. Allyn, 1855-1857. T. H. Vail, 1856, 1857. T. R. Hazard, 1856-1859. S. A. Crane, 1856-1859. J. Kingsbury, 1858, 1859. A. A. Gamwell, 1860-1864. W. A. Mowry, 1860, 1862, 1863. S. Austin, 1860-1864. I. F. Cady, 1860, 1861, 1864. H. R. Pierce, 1860, 1861. J. Kendall, 1861. N. W. De Munn, 1861. G. A. Willard, 1861-1864. B. V. Gallup, 1861, 1864. J. Kendall, 1862-1864. J. H. Tefft, 1862-1864. D. R. Adams, 1863, 1864. J. M. Ross, 1864. B. F. Hayes, 1864.

CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES.—N. Bishop, 1845-1847. A. Perry, 1848-1850. Z. Grover, 1851-1857. A. W. Godding, 1858-1863.

RECORDING SECRETARIES.—J. D. Giddings, 1845-1847. C. T. Keith, 1848, 1849. C. Farnum, 1850. A. A. Gamwell, 1851-1853. A. W. Godding, 1854-1857. E. H. Magill, 1858, 1859. F. B. Snow, 1860, 1861. A. C. Robbins, 1862-1864.

TREASURERS.—T. C. Hartshorn, 1845-1851. A. Perry, 1853-1855. C. T. Keith, 1856-1861. N. W. De Munn, 1862, 1863.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, or DIRECTORS.—W. Gammell, 1845-1859. J. T. Sisson, 1845, 1846, 1854. J. B. Tallman, 1845-1847. L. W. Ballou, 1845, 1846. S. Greene, 1845, 1846. J. S. Tourtellott, 1846, 1848-1854. A. Perry, 1846, 1858-1861. C. Farnum, 1846-1849. G. C. Wilson, 1846-1856. W. S. Baker, 1846, 1848, 1849. T. R. Hazard, 1846-1855. J. Boyden, Jr., 1847, 1856, 1857. N. Bishop, 1848-1851. C. G. Perry, 1848-1854. T. H. Vail, 1848-1855. S. Patterson, 1848-1859. S. Austin, 1848-1851, 1853-1859. T. Shepard, 1848, 1849. J. Bushee, 1848-1854. T. T. Hazard, 1851-1853. S. S. Greene, 1852-1855. A. A. Gamwell, 1854-1859. G. W. Quereau, 1855-1859. G. A. Willard, 1855-1859. E. Gray, Jr., 1855-1857. N. B. Cooke, 1855-1860. J. H. Willard, 1855-1859. O. F. Otis, 1855-1859. D. P. Colburn, 1855-1859. W. H. Farrar, 1855, 1856. E. H. Magill, 1856, 1857. J. Kingsbury, 1856, 1857. D. Leach, 1856-1859. T. G. Potter, 1856-1859. C. C. Beaman, 1857. E. M. Stone, 1857-1863. E. Grant, 1857. L. A. Wheelock, 1858, 1859. W. G. Crosby, 1858, 1859. J. B. Breed, 1858, 1859. M. Lyon, 1858, 1859. A. J. Manchester, 1860, 1861. M. S. Greene, 1860-1863. W. A. Mowry, 1861. W. A. Eastman, 1861-1863. I. F. Cady, 1861, 1863. H. M. Rice, 1862, 1863. F. B. Snow, 1862, 1863. T. Davis, 1862, 1863. J. T. Edwards, 1863. T. W. Bicknell, 1863.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

WE hoped to have accompanied the foregoing account of the RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, the earliest formed, and altogether the most comprehensive and active in its plans of operation, of the State Teachers' and Educational Associations, with brief sketches of the educational activity of its Presidents, by the same hand which prepared the account. But in this we are disappointed.

Of the first President (1845-1856), JOHN KINGSBURY, LL. D., a memoir and portrait will be found in the first volume of this Journal, and in "*Barnard's Educational Biography—American Teachers and Educators*, Vol. I."

Of the second President (1857-1858), Prof. S. S. GREENE, a brief memoir will be found in connection with the proceedings of the National Teachers' Association in 1864, of which he was elected President for the ensuing year.

JOHN J. LADD, the third President (1859-1863), was born in Newbury, Vt., May 11th, 1828, and graduated at Dartmouth College, in 1852. After serving one year as assistant teacher in Black River Academy, Ludlow, Vt., and five years as principal of the Warner Academy, Woburn, Mass., he was elected to the charge of the Classical Department of the Public High School in Providence, in 1859, where he continued till January, 1864, when he opened with Mr. W. Mowry, a Select School in the same city—both he and Mr. Mowry retiring from the service of the Public Schools on account of a reduction in salary.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY was born in Uxbridge, Mass., August 13th, 1829, and received his early education in the District School and Academy of his native town. For four years from 1842-3 he earned his own living in various fields of juvenile labor, until 1848 when he commenced "school-keeping," and obtaining a college education, for which he made a thorough preparation in Phillips Academy, Andover. He entered Brown University in 1854, but left at the close of his second year on account of impaired health. In 1857 he assumed the publication and editorship of the "*R. I. Schoolmaster*" (started by Rev. Robert Allyn, School Commissioner, in 1855,) and having relieved it from debt and obtained a supporting list of subscribers, he transferred its management to the R. I. Institute. In 1858 he became principal of the English department of the Providence Public High School, in which he labored until February, 1864, when he retired with Mr. Ladd, and opened a private High School for boys.

Any notice, however brief, of the office-bearers and active members of the Institute, would be greatly deficient which should not make honorable and grateful mention of WILLIAM S. BAKER, to whose services as Agent of the Executive Committee in continuation of the same missionary work he had done for the Washington County Teachers' Association, and in coöperation with the Commissioner of Public Schools, the Institute and the State are under more obligations than words, however strong, can express. Of Mr. Baker's manifold, disinterested, indefatigable, and useful career, as teacher of Public Schools, and as an itinerating lecturer on self and school education, we hope to be at liberty to speak at large hereafter. To the thousands of teachers and young people in whom he inspired the spirit of self improvement we dedicate the portrait which accompanies this number of the Journal, and which no one will be more surprised to see than himself.

XIII. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1864.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH SESSION, OR FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING, held at Ogdensburg, N. Y., August 10th, 11th, and 12th, 1864.

FIRST DAY, *Wednesday, August 10, 1864.*

THE ASSOCIATION met in Eagle Hall and was called to order at 10 o'clock, A. M., by the President, W. H. WELLS, of Chicago.

The session was opened with prayer by Rev. L. M. Miller, of Ogdensburg, followed by a song of welcome, composed for the occasion, and sung by the Ogdensburg Musical Association and Normal Music School, under the direction of Prof. H. S. Perkins.

Col. R. W. JUDSON, of the Board of Education of Ogdensburg, in behalf of the Board and citizens, welcomed the Association in an eloquent address, in which he referred to the importance of education, and to the duty of the Association in the present condition of the country, with the hope that the nation would soon be again at peace, united and ready to advance the interests which the Association has at heart.

The President briefly and pertinently responded.

A communication was received from a committee of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, welcoming the National Association to the State, expressing a hearty sympathy in its plans and purposes, and pledging coöperation in carrying forward the reforms it has instituted.

The communication was, by previous rule, placed on file, and the correspondence recorded.

The Annual Address of the President then followed; the exercises of the afternoon were announced, and the article of the Constitution relating to membership was read.

On motion of Dr. J. N. MCJILTON that a committee be appointed to whom the communication of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association be referred,

The Chair appointed Messrs. J. N. MCJILTON, J. W. BULKLEY, and D. B. HAGAR.

On motion of Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, Mr. E. DANFORTH, of Troy, was appointed Assistant Secretary, to record the names of members present. Mr. S. H. WHITE was also, on motion, appointed to act as Treasurer, *pro tem*.

Adjourned to meet at 2 1-2 o'clock, P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Association met at 2 1-2 o'clock, President WELLS in the chair.

Announcement of arrangements for return tickets was made by the President. The Glee Club of the Ogdensburg Musical Association favored the Association with a song.

On motion of Dr. MCJILTON that a committee be appointed on the President's Address,

The Chair appointed Messrs. J. N. MCJILTON, S. S. GREENE, and J. W. BULKLEY.

Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK then read a paper prepared by Rev. Dr. HILL, of Harvard University—Subject: *Should a Teacher or Professor of Didactics be appointed in every principal College?*

The reading of the paper was followed by a discussion of the question, by Messrs. J. W. BULKLEY, Dr. SEARS, CHARLES DAVIES, and Prof. J. B. THOMSON.

The Committee on Membership presented a list of names, and the persons reported were duly elected members.

After a recess of five minutes,

Dr. MCJILTON, from the Committee on the President's Address, recommended a postponement of its discussion, and that the discussion of Dr. HILL's paper be continued.

The discussion of Dr. HILL's paper was accordingly resumed, and carried on by Messrs. DAVIES, THOMSON, MCJILTON, PHILBRICK, HAGAR, and GREENE, when further discussion was, on motion, postponed.

Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK moved an amendment to the constitution, requiring that the regular meetings of the Association shall be biennial, instead of annual.

The proposed amendment was discussed by Messrs. MCJILTON, PHILBRICK, HAGAR, THOMSON, W. N. BARRINGER, W. H. WELLS, J. S. ADAMS and DRURY. Adjourned to 7½, P. M.

Evening Session.

On motion, an informal ballot was taken upon the proposed amendment to the constitution, resulting in a vote of eight yeas to eleven nays; on further motion, the subject was postponed for one year.

On motion, a committee for the nomination of officers was appointed by the Chair, consisting of Messrs. D. N. CAMP, S. S. GREENE, J. D. PHILBRICK, D. F. WELLS, J. W. BULKLEY, J. F. EBERHART, J. N. MCJILTON, C. S. PENNELL, and Z. RICHARDS.

A song was given by the Ogdensburg Musical Association.

Dr. J. N. MCJILTON made a report on, *A System of Free Schools*.

After another song, the Association adjourned.

SECOND DAY, August 11.—Morning Session.

The Association met at 9 o'clock, and was opened by prayer by Rev. Dr. SEARS, of Providence.

On motion of Mr. Z. RICHARDS, an invitation was given to educational gentlemen present, from Canada and elsewhere, to sit with the Association and participate in its deliberations.

On motion of Mr. E. DANFORTH, all lady teachers present were elected honorary members and requested to signify their acceptance by recording their names.

On motion, the remarks of members taking part in discussions were limited to five minutes each.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. J. S. ADAMS, and adopted:

Resolved, That the State Educational Associations of the various States in the Union are hereby respectfully invited, at their various annual meetings, to elect one or more delegates as their representatives to this, the National Teachers' Association.

After music by the juvenile class of the Normal Music School, under the di-

rection of Prof. Perkins, he was invited to give with his class, at the opening of the afternoon session, an exhibition of his method of instruction in vocal music.

The Association then proceeded to the consideration of the topics recommended by the committee to whom was referred the President's Address, and after a discussion of the subject of *Sectional Divisions*, by Mr. S. S. GREENE, it was voted not to be desirable to resolve the Association into sectional meetings.

A discussion followed upon *Practical Modes of Teaching the English Language*, which was participated in by Messrs. GREENE, R. CRUIKSHANK, D. F. WELLS, J. B. MCGUNN, W. N. BARRINGER, C. S. PENNELL, W. A. MOWRY, and J. W. BULKLEY, when, on motion, the subject was laid upon the table.

The order of the day was then taken up—*What Improvements need to be introduced in Methods of Teaching the Ancient Languages?*—which was discussed by Messrs. Prof. HARKNESS, Dr. SEARS, J. W. MCLAWRY, E. J. HAMILTON, C. DAVIES, E. D. WELLER, and M. LYON.

On motion of Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, the subject was laid upon the table, and a recess of five minutes was taken.

Song by the Messrs. Perkins.

Dr. H. B. WILBUR, of Syracuse, delivered a lecture upon *Object Teaching*.

Several notices were given, and the Association adjourned to 2½ P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Association opened at 2 1-2 o'clock, when Prof. PERKINS, of the Normal Music School, with a class of pupils, proceeded to illustrate briefly his method of teaching vocal music.

The Committee on Nomination of officers reported, and the Association proceeded to an election. The officers nominated by the committee, and as given at the close of this report, were unanimously elected.

The report of the Treasurer was received and accepted.

Mr. J. CRUIKSHANK, of Albany, of the Committee on Publication, stated that copies of the proceedings were on hand and for sale for the benefit of the Association.

Mr. J. S. ADAMS, offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the indebtedness of the Association should be immediately liquidated; that in order to secure this result members of the Association who are willing to be assessed equally to an amount not exceeding \$5.00 each, for the purpose of paying all the debts now existing against the Association, be requested to give in their names to the Secretary, and that an opportunity be now given for the reception of names.

On motion of Mr. HAGAR, the Treasurer was directed to inform absent members of the amount of their dues, and also of the present financial condition of the Association, and to solicit subscriptions to defray its expenses.

An opportunity having been given for subscriptions to be made, the order of the day was postponed for the discussion upon the subject of the lecture of Dr. WILBUR. On motion of Prof. DAVIES, the rule limiting each speaker to five minutes was suspended in favor of Mr. SHELDON, of Oswego, and a discussion followed, by Messrs. SHELDON, WILBUR, MCGUNN, CRUIKSHANK, BARRINGER, Dr. B. SEARS, PHILBRICK, and WELLER, of Oswego.

Mr. J. CRUIKSHANK moved the following resolution:

Resolved, That the new Board of Directors be requested, in arranging for the

exercises of the next session, to visit the schools under the charge of the Oswego Board of Education, either by a committee of their number or of such persons as they may select, such committee to report to this Association at its next annual meeting, upon the system and method of primary instruction practiced therein.

Mr. J. B. THOMSON moved to amend by inserting "and elementary schools elsewhere," and the resolution as thus amended was adopted.

A communication was received from Col. JUDSON, inviting the Association to visit the school buildings under the control of the Board of Education of Ogdensburg. The invitation was accepted, and Messrs. PHILBRICK, PENNELL, and T. F. THICHSTUN were appointed a committee to visit the schools.

Mr. J. W. BULKLEY read a paper upon *Teachers' Associations*.

Adjourned to 8, P. M.

Evening Session.

On motion, a committee on resolutions was appointed, consisting of Messrs. DANFORTH, HAGAR, and EBERHART.

Mr. R. ALEXANDER, delegate from the Teachers' Association of Canada West, by special request, gave a detailed statement of facts and statistics showing the working and progress of educational institutions in Canada.

♫ Song by the Musical Association. Announcement of excursions down the St. Lawrence, by Messrs. SHELDON and DANFORTH. Election of new members.

HON. SAMUEL P. BATES, of Pennsylvania, delivered an address on *Liberal Education*.

Song, by a quartette, under the direction of Prof. Perkins.

Rev. L. M. MILLER offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Whereas, The study of music as a science disciplines the mind, assists to strengthen the memory, and quickens the perceptive and reasoning faculties,

And whereas, The practice of vocal music is a pleasant, enlivening, and healthful exercise and tends to cultivate the voice for speaking and reading, as well as for singing, therefore

Resolved, That vocal music ought to be taught by competent teachers in all of our public schools.

Singing of *The Star-Spangled Banner*. Adjourned.

THIRD DAY, August 12.—*Morning Session.*

The Association was called to order by Vice-President D. F. WELLS, and opened by prayer by Rev. Prof. BRUSH, of Iowa.

Song by the Glee Club of the Normal Music School.

After several business announcements, Mr. SIMON BARROWS, of Des Moines, Iowa, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to recommend, at the next meeting of the Association, a catalogue of books for District School Libraries; said books to be selected with reference to the general wants of parents, youth, and children, to be free from sectarianism, from all bitter party spirit, and everything exceptionable in point of moral influence, and to be arranged in separate lists so that they can be introduced into small districts gradually.

The resolution was adopted, after discussion by Messrs. BARROWS and McGUNN in favor, and by Messrs. DANFORTH, R. CRUIKSHANK, and J. CRUIKSHANK in opposition, and the following committee appointed: Messrs. Prof. WOOD, of Brooklyn, N. Y., S. S. GREENE, S. BARROWS, S. P. BATES, and J. S. ADAMS.

On motion of Hon. H. BARNARD, of Hartford, and by unanimous consent of the Association, Mr. R. CRUIKSHANK explained the advantages of an improved school desk.

Prof. S. H. WHITE read an essay entitled *A National Bureau of Education*—and offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Association, the educational interests of the country would be greatly advanced by the establishment of a National Bureau of Education.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed, whose duty it shall be to secure, if possible, the establishment of such an agency at Washington during the next session of Congress; and also to report the results of their action at the next meeting of this Association, with their views upon the subject of "A National Board of Education and the appointment of a Secretary of Public Instruction."

Mr. Z. RICHARDS moved their adoption, and after a discussion by Messrs. RICHARDS and BARNARD, they were adopted, and Messrs. BARNARD, RICHARDS, and WHITE were appointed the committee.

A song from the class under Prof. Perkins was followed by a recess of five minutes.

Mr. Z. RICHARDS offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That this Association, in consideration of the delegation from the Teachers' Association of Canada West, would reciprocate their kind greetings and their desires to promote a fellow-feeling and sympathy between the governments, by the appointment of delegates to their next annual meeting.

Hon. HENRY BARNARD addressed the Association upon the following subject: *Competitive Examinations applied to appointments in the Public Service.*

A discussion upon the subject followed, by Messrs. SHELDON, MASON, of N.Y., WALTON, of Lawrence, BARNARD, DAVIES, R. CRUIKSHANK, BARROWS, and PENNELL,—and Mr. BARNARD was requested to furnish to the committee, his address, for publication. Adjourned to 2½ P. M.

Afternoon Session.

Called to order by Mr. D. F. WELLS, Vice-President, in the Chair.

Letters were read from several members not able to be present. New members admitted, on motion of Mr. J. CRUIKSHANK.

Mr. HAGAR, from the Committee on Delegates, submitted the following report:

The committee to whom were referred the communication from the New York State Teachers' Association, and the credentials of the delegates from the State Association of Minnesota, and the Province of Canada West, beg leave to offer the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we hereby express our sincere gratitude to the members of the New York State Teachers' Association for the hearty greeting they have extended to the National Teachers' Association, and that we, with a strong grasp, accept the right hand of fellowship so generously proffered us, and bid them a prayerful "God speed" in the noble work they have been doing so long and so well.

Resolved, That we have welcomed with pleasure the delegate from the State Association of Minnesota, and that we gratefully appreciate this kind recognition of the importance of our Association.

Resolved, That while as a national body we can know no East and no West, we cheerfully recognize a Canada West, especially in the great courtesy displayed by its Teachers' Association, in voluntarily sending its welcome delegate to this convention; and that we, fully appreciating the honor thus conferred upon us, present to the members of that Association our warmest thanks and our heartfelt wishes for their continued prosperity.

The report was accepted and the resolutions adopted.

On motion of Mr. BARNARD, the Committee on Publication were authorized to include an abstract of the proceedings of the several State Associations.

The Chair announced the following Committee on Object Teaching: Messrs.

W. H. WELLS, Rev. B. SEARS, J. D. PHILBRICK, J. L. PICKARD, of Chicago, D. N. CAMP, R. EDWARDS, of Illinois, and C. S. PENNELL.

The following were appointed as delegates to the Association of Canada West: Messrs. E. A. SHELDON, J. S. ADAMS, and J. M. B. SILL, of Detroit.

On motion, the reports on the condition of education in the several states, are limited to five minutes each.

Upon call of the States, the following gentlemen responded: for New York, J. CRUIKSHANK; Illinois, J. F. EBERHART; New Hampshire, C. P. OTIS; District of Columbia, Z. RICHARDS; Indiana, Prof. H. H. YOUNG; Connecticut, Prof. D. N. CAMP; Iowa, Pres. BRUSH and W. BARROWS; Pennsylvania, Rev. R. CRUIKSHANK; Rhode Island, Dr. B. SEARS; Massachusetts, D. B. HAGAR; Louisiana, Mr. BROWN; Wisconsin, Mr. COLBY; Missouri, U. S. PENNELL.

Mr. MASON, of New York, made some remarks on *Teachers' Sore Throat, and the method of Cure*.

Mr. PENNELL, of the Committee to visit the Ogdensburg Schools, reported that the Committee were pleased with the neatness and comfort of the buildings, and with the deep interest in public education apparent in the village.

Rev. L. M. MILLER and Hon. JOHN FINE were elected honorary members.

Mr. DANFORTH, of the Committee on Resolutions, reported the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, It is eminently proper that we, the members of the National Teachers' Association, at the close of its sixth annual session, should give formal expression to the heartfelt gratitude which we entertain toward all those to whose generous effort and kind consideration is so richly due that large measure of success which has characterized the present meeting, therefore

Resolved, That our warmest thanks be, and they are hereby tendered to the citizens of Ogdensburg, for the warm greeting and most abundant hospitality which gave the Association at once a home in their midst; to the Board of Education, and to the Committee of Reception, and especially its Chairman, T. H. Brannan, for their constant and untiring labors to promote the welfare and happiness of all the members in attendance; to the several hotels in the city, and the various railroad and steamboat lines, whose liberal reduction of fares has done much to increase the number of delegates in attendance from distant parts of the land; to the Ogdensburg Musical Association, and its leader, Prof. H. S. Perkins, for their sweet and inspiring songs, and to Messrs. Clemons & Redington, for the use of a piano gratuitously furnished; to the daily papers, for the faithful reports of our proceedings; to the President, Secretary, and other retiring officers of the Association, for the wisdom and zeal with which they have conducted its affairs during the year now closing; and to the various lecturers, committees, and members of the Association, whose valuable services have contributed to make this a meeting unsurpassed in the amount and value of the work accomplished.

Resolved, That we believe the cause of true popular education to be the bulwark of our free institutions, the basis of all valuable growth in national prosperity and greatness, and that we feel called upon in this time of our country's trial to double our vigilance and increase our efforts in its behalf; and to this end, we pledge new zeal and labor for the prosperity of this Association.

Adjourned.

Evening Session.

The evening session was spent socially. The exercises consisted of a number of songs by Prof. Perkins and his associates, interspersed with appropriate speeches from Mr. EBERHART, Pres. SEARS, Col. JUDSON, Hon. PRESTON KING, and others. Pres. GREENE made some appropriate closing remarks, and the Association adjourned after singing "Old Hundred."

D. N. CAMP, *Secretary*.

OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR 1864-5.

President—S. S. GREENE, Providence, R. I.

Vice-Presidents,

RICHARD EDWARDS, Bloomington, Ill.	C. S. PENNELL, St. Louis, Mo.
S. P. BATES, Harrisburg, Pa.	G. W. HOSS, Indianapolis, Ind.
G. F. PHELPS, New Haven, Conn.	J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.
E. P. WILLIAMS, Madison, Wis.	D. B. HAGAR, Jamaica Plains, Mass.
D. FRANKLIN WELLS, Iowa City, Ia.	J. M. GREGORY, Ann Arbor, Mich.
A. J. RUCKOFF, Cincinnati, Ohio.	E. P. WESTON, Gorham, Maine.

Secretary,

W. E. SHELDON, Boston, Mass.

Treasurer,

Z. RICHARDS, Washington.

Counselors,

ARNER J. PHIPPS, Mass.	J. G. McMYNN, Racine, Wis.
MERRICK LYON, Providence, R. I.	WM. BRUSH, Fayette, Iowa.
J. S. ADAMS, Burlington, Vt.	T. F. THICHSTUN, Hastings, Minn.
C. P. OTIS, Rye, N. H.	I. T. GOODNOW, Topeka, Kansas.
D. N. CAMP, New Britain, Conn.	C. F. CHILDS, St. Louis, Mo.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Albany, N. Y.	E. A. GRANT, Louisville, Ky.
J. N. MCJILTON, Baltimore, Md.	B. L. BROWN, New Orleans, La.
E. E. WHITE, Columbus, Ohio.	JOSEPH HOLDEN, Stockton, Cal.
S. H. WHITE, Chicago, Ill.	J. C. SHORTRIDGE, Indianapolis, Ind.
R. CRUIKSHANK, Pottstown, Pa.	

SAMUEL S. GREENE.

SAMUEL STILLMAN GREENE was born in Belchertown, Mass., on the 3d of May, 1810. Receiving his early education in the district schools of his native town, he fitted for Brown University in Leicester Academy, and graduated in 1837, with the highest honors of his class.

Inheriting "an aptness to teach" from his father, who was known in all the region round about as "Master Greene," he commenced his novitiate as a teacher in the district school in the winter of 1829-30, "at ten dollars a month and boarded round," and followed it up regularly every winter until he entered college, and with the exception of a single winter, until he graduated—thus acquiring the means of continuing his own education and consolidating his own intellectual training, by instructing others.

After graduating, he taught in Worcester Academy, Mass., first as assistant, and then as principal, from 1837 to 1840, which post he resigned to become Town Superintendent of the Public Schools of Springfield—the first appointment of the kind in Massachusetts. In 1842 he removed to Boston, where he was first assistant in the English High School, and the principal of one of the Public Grammar Schools, and in 1849 Agent of the State Board of Education from 1849 to 1851, when he removed to Providence to become Superintendent of the City Public Schools, and soon after Professor of Didactics in Brown University, and in 1855 Professor of Mathematics and Civil Engineering.

While Superintendent in Providence he established a class of teachers, in 1853, composed partly of students in the University, and of city and county teachers, out of which grew up a private Normal School, which in 1854 was adopted by the city, and the same year by the State, and is now known as the State Normal School.

Prof. Greene was one of the founders of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association—and one of the first Board of Editors of the Massachusetts Teacher:—Vice-President and active member of the American Institute of Instruction—and President of the Rhode Island Institute, as well as of the National Teachers' Association—discharging, by his presence in all professional gatherings and a willing service, the duty which every teacher owes to his profession.

Prof. Greene is the author of a very valuable and popular series of English Grammars, viz.:—"Introduction to the study of English Grammar," first published in 1856; "*First Lessons in English Grammar*," first published in 1849; "*Elements of English Grammar*," first published in 1853; "*Analysis of the English Language*," first published in 1848. The last named was the first published, and introduced the new method of analysis into this department of instruction. One of his numerous educational lectures is printed in the volume of the American Institute, viz.:—"On teaching Reading through the Elementary Sounds of the Language."

XIV. AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

ANONYMOUS.

- A-B-C, (The) set forth by the Kyng's Majestie and his Clergye, and commanded to be taught throughout all his realm. London, 1530.*
- A-B-C, for Children, newly devised with Syllables, the Lordes prier, our belief, and the Commandments. London, 1538.*
- A-B-C, the Pathway to Reading; or the newest Spellings, &c. London, 1590.*
- A-B-C, with the Paternoster, Ave Maria, Crede, and ten Commandments. London, 1640.*
- A-B-C, with the Shorter Catechism. Glasgow, 1841.
- Abecedarium, &c.* [A vocabulary of a few leaves, by a Dutch Monk. Printed from wooden blocks by John Guttenburg.]
- Abridgment of the History and Grammar of the English Language. London, 1833.
- Accordion—New and Complete Method. Boston. New York.*
- Agricultural Class Book. Dublin, 1853.
- Alabama Readers, Nos. I., II., III. New York 1852.*
- Alabama Table Book. New Haven.*
- Alphabet. New York 1845.*
- Alphabet of Thought; or Elements of Metaphysical Science. Harrisburg, 1825.*
- Alphabet of American Subjects. Philadelphia.*
- Alphabet of General Subjects. Philadelphia.*
- American Instructor. Philadelphia, 1730.*
- American Lady's Preceptor. Baltimore, 3rd ed., '13.
- American Latin Grammar; Compendious Introduction to the Latin Tongue. Providence, 1794.*
- American Manual of Photography. Cincinnati.*
- American Lessons in Reading and Spelling. New York.*
- American Orator's Own Book. Philadelphia, 1855.*
- American Orthographer, or New Book of Spelling. New York, 1803.*
- American Popular Lessons. (Eliza Robbins.) New York, 1830.
- American Primer. Brookfield, 1829.
- American Reader. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, 1828, 2d edition, 1829.
- American Reader. (J. Leavitt.) No. I. New York, Boston.*
- " " No. II. New York, 1848. (Boston.)
- " " No. III. New York, 1849. (Boston.)
- American School Hymn Book. Boston, 1858.*
- American Speaker. Philadelphia, 4th edition, 1817. (Boston, 1836.)
- American Sunday School Psalmody. New York, 1845.*
- American Young Men's Best Companion; containing Writing, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, Measuring, Forms of Letters, Bonds, &c. 2nd edition, Boston. Walpole. Philadelphia.*
- Amesbury Map Questions. Amesbury, Mass., 1843.
- Analecta Latina Majora. London, no date.
- Analytic Grammar. Philadelphia, 1836.*
- Anatomy and Physiology for Schools. Phila.*
- Analysis and Synthesis of the Sentence. No title page.
- Anglo-Saxon Root-words, Hand-book of. New York, 1854.*
- Anglo-Saxon Derivatives, Hand-book of. New York, 1854.*
- Anglo-Saxon Orthography, Hand-book of. New York, 1853, (1854.)
- Art of Reading. Boston, 2nd edition, 1828.*
- Art of Speaking; Lessons in Reading, &c. Boston—before 1804.*
- Arithmetic for Young Children. London, 1842.
- Arithmetic simplified. (C. E. Beecher.) Hartford, '98.
- Arithmetic—Vulgar and Decimal. Boston, 1734.*
- Arithmetical Tables for the School Room. New York.*
- Arithmetical Tables and Rules. Burlington, N. J., '15.
- Arithmetical Rules and Tables. Philadelphia, 1854.
- Baptist Catechism. Parts I., II. (Keach.) New York, 1852. Philadelphia.*
- Same, with references. New York, 1852.*
- Baptist Question Books. Scripture Series, 3 Nos. Philadelphia.*
- Beauties of the New England Primer. New York, n. d.
- Beauties of the Christian's Friend. (Author of Child's First Book. Boston, 1808, (1827.)
- Beauties of the Bible. Before 1804.*
- Bernardo del Carpio. Boston, 1843.*
- Benga Primer. New London, Penn., 1855.*
- Bible Biography for use of Sunday Schools. Boston, 1830.*
- Biographical Sketches of Eminent British Poets. Dublin, 1854.
- Blackboard in the Primary School. (J. F. Bumstead.) Boston, 1841.
- Book of Commerce. Boston, 1833. (Philadelphia.)
- Book of Common Prayer in Mohawk. New York, 1760.*
- Book for Massachusetts Children. (Hildreth.) Boston, 1829.*
- Book for New Hampshire Children. (H. Hildreth.)
- Borough Road Model School—Text-Book. London.*
- Boston Flute Instruction Book. Boston. New York.*
- Boston Reading Lessons. Boston, 1837.
- Boston School Atlas. Boston.*
- Boston Primer; Improvement of the New England Primer. Boston, 1810.*
- Boston Writing Copies. Boston, 1836.*
- Botanical Dictionary. (A. Eaton.) New Haven, 1816.
- Botany for all Classes. New York.*
- Botany for Beginners. New York.*
- British Grammar. (London 1760, 1772.) Boston, '84.
- Brief Remarker.*
- Cabinet Family Atlas. Philadelphia.*
- Campus Florum Latinitatis. (Latin and French.) Rouen, 1635.
- Carolina Table Book. New Haven.*
- Cartilla ó Silabario, &c. Boston, 15th edition, 1843.*
- Catalogue of Dictionaries, Vocabularys, Grammars, and Alphabets. London, 1790.*
- Catalogue of Grammars. See G. Brown's Grammar of Grammars, 1860; Well's Grammar, 1863.*
- Catalogue of Arithmetics. See De Morgan's Arithmetical Books. London, 1847.
- Catalogue of Book-keeping. See Foster's Book-keeping. New York, 1862.
- Catechism. The way of Truth laid out; or Supplies from the Tower of David. Boston, 2nd edition, 1721.*
- Catechism. Nos. I.—IV. New York.*
- Catechism on the Collects. New York.*
- Catechisms. [Printed for the Dorchester (Mass.) Schools.] London, 1650, 1655.*

- Catechisms, in the Negro Christianized. Bost., 1823.*
 Catechism—in three Parts. Boston, 3d edition, 1826.*
 Catechism of the Bible. New York, 1827.*
 Catechism of Animated Nature. New York, 1827.*
 Catechism of Geography. New York, 1827.*
 Catechism of General Knowledge. New York, 1827.*
 Catechism of Health. New York, 1827.*
 Catechism of Botany. New York, 1827.*
 Catechism of Universal History. New York, 1827.*
 Catholicon, seu Abecedarium. [Printed from wooden blocks, by John Guttenberg, 1640.*]
 Catholicon, seu Summa Grammaticalis. [Printed by Faust, in 1460.]*
 Cato's Moral Distichs Englished in Compleat. Philadelphia, 1733.*
 Central School Reader. Philadelphia, 1847, 1852.*
 Chasba Hobbes, &c.; The Choctaw Spelling Book. Boston, 5th edition, 1849.
 Cherokee Primer. Park Hill, Arkansas, 1840, 1846.*
 Child's Assistant. Brookfield, 1829.*
 Child's Book in Ottawa. Detroit, 1845.*
 Chemistry applied to Agriculture, Physiology, and Commerce. New York.*
 Child's Arithmetic. Washington, no date. Hart., '18.
 Child's Botany. Boston.*
 Child's Botany for Beginners. Boston.*
 Child's Drawing Book, Cottages. Philadelphia.*
 Child's Elementary Drawing Book. New York.*
 Child's First Book. (Author of Children's Friend.) Boston, 1816.
 Child's First Book; an Easy Introduction to Reading. 1804.*
 Child's First Book in Geography. Philadelphia.*
 Child's First Drawing Book. New York.*
 Child's First History of America. New York.*
 Child's Juvenile Drawing Book, Landscapes. Phila.*
 Child's Guide. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, 1830. Springfield, 1845.
 Child's Instructor. Salem, 1814. New York, 1818.
 Child's Primer. Boston, no date.*
 Child's New Plaything. A Spelling Book. Boston, 1744.*
 Child's Scripture Question Book. New York, 1845.*
 Child's United States. Philadelphia.*
 Christian Orator. Boston, 2d edition, 1818.
 Church Catechism. Boston, 1745.*
 Church Primer. New York.*
 Clarionet Preceptor. Hallowell.*
 Class Book of Poetry. London, 1822.
 Class Book of Prose and Poetry, with Exercises in Parsing. Boston.*
 Classical Spelling Book, Key to the. (A. B. Chapin.) No date.
 Clavis Homerica. No title page.
 Collectanea Græca Minora. Cambridge, 1st edition, 1804. (Philadelphia, 1822.)
 College Atlas. London.
 Collection of Psalter Tunes, with Instructions. Boston, 1721. Phila., 1753.*
 Colmena Espanola, or Spanish Extracts. Boston, 5th edition, 1843.*
 Colonies of Great Britain. London, 1822.
 Columbian Writing Book. Eight numbers. New Bedford and Providence.*
 Columbian Arithmetic. Haverhill, 1837.
 Columbian Arithmetician.*
 Comic Grammar. London, 1840.*
 Comme on parle Français à Paris. New York.*
 Common School Reader. Parts I., II., III., IV. Philadelphia.*
 Companion to the Bible. New York.*
 Compendium Logice, &c. Boston, 1735.*
 Compendious Summary of Universal History. Phila.*
 Compendium of Astronomy. Philadelphia, 1800.
 Complete Letter Writer. New York, 1763.*
 Complete English Spelling Dictionary for the use of Schools. London, 1764.*
 Complete Dictionary of the Chinook Jargon. Portland, O. T., 3d edition, 1856.*
 Complete Violin Instructor. Boston.*
 Comprehensive Grammar. 3d edition, Phila., 1789.*
 Comprehensive Grammar, and Complete Letter Writer. London, 1811.*
 Comprehensive Reader in Prose and Poetry. London, no date.
 Comprehensive Primer. London, no date.
 Concise Grammar of the English Language, in verse. New York, 1st edition, 1825.*
 Constitutional Test-Book. New York, 1854.
 Consecutive Union Question Books. 4 volumes, New York, 1845.*
 Conversational Commentary for Bible Classes. New York.*
 Conversations on Common Things. (D. L. Dix.) Bost. (1824.) 2d edition, 1826. 8th edition, 1840. 9th edition, 1841, 1843.
 Conversation on Chemistry. (Mrs. Marcet.) New Haven, 1813, 1814.
 Conversations on the History of Massachusetts. Boston, 1831.*
 Conversations on Political Economy. Phila., 1817.*
 Course of Calisthenics for Young Ladies. (C. E. Beecher ?) Hartford, 1832.*
 Daily Lesson Books, Nos. I., II., III., IV. (H. Dunn and J. T. Crossley.) London, no date.
 Sequel to No. II. (H. Dunn and J. T. Crossley.) London, no date.
 Decoy, or Elementary English Grammar. New York, 1820.*
 Delectus Sententiarum Græcarum. See F. P. Leverett.
 Detroit Public School Manual and Table-Book. Detroit, 1822.
 Devotional Exercises for Schools. Boston, 1844.
 Dialect of Craven. 2 vols. London, 1822.
 Dictionnaire de L'Académie Française. 2 vols. Paris, 6th edition, 1835.
 Dictionnaire Royal, en abrégé.
 Dictionary of Select and Popular Quotations. Phila.*
 Dictionarium Trilingue. Title page lost.
 Drawing for Young Children. London, 1840.
 Drawing Book for Young Persons. New York.*
 Drawing Book of Trees. New York.*
 Easy Lessons for Little Ones at Home. New York.*
 Easy Lessons in Perspective. (Mrs. Minot.) Boston, 1830.
 Easy Lessons for Infant Classes in Sabbath Schools. Worcester, 1840.
 Easy Introduction to the Knowledge of Nature. New York.*
 Easy Lessons in Learning French. Boston.*
 Easy Primer. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, Springfield.*
 Easy Questions for Little Children, N. Y.*
 Edinburgh Sessional School Spelling Book.*
 Edward's First Lessons in Grammar. (Mrs. A. C. Lowell.) Boston, 1843.
 Elements of Algebra. Philadelphia.*
 Elements of Chemistry, by Uncle Davy. N. Y., 1846.*
 Elements of Botany. London, 8th edition, 1854. (Phila.)
 Elementary Drawing Book. Drawing, Shading, and Coloring. Philadelphia.*
 Elementary Questions on the Old Testament. New York, 1854.*
 El Director de los Niños. Philadelphia, 1811.
 Elementary Catechism on Sanitation. London, 1851.
 Elementary Drawing Book. New York.*
 Elements of Natural Philosophy. Phila., 1807.
 Elements of Geometry. Dublin, 1826.
 Elements of Geometry. Philadelphia. Boston.*
 Elements of Geography. Philadelphia, 1837.
 Elements of French Pronunciation. By F. A. B. Paris, 1823.
 Elements of the Grammar of the English Language. New York, 1822.
 Elements of Reading. London, 1681.*
 Elements of Musical Articulation. Boston.*
 Enclitics: Outlines of a Course of Universal Grammar. London, 1814.
 England's Perfect Schoolmaster, or directions for Reading, Spelling, &c. London, 1676.*

English and German Grammar. Phila., 1748.*
 English Grammar, with First Lessons in Reading. London, 2d edition, 1844.
 English Grammar. Dublin, 1841, 1849.
 English Grammar. By T. C. London, 1803.*
 English Grammar. London, 1793.*
 English Grammar. London, 1838.
 English Grammar—with Engravings. London, 1830.*
 English Grammar. Huddersfield, 1817.*
 English Grammar. Albany, 1819.*
 English School Grammar. Christian Knowledge Society. London.*
 English School Grammar. London, 1850.
 English Spelling Book. (G. D. Abbott.) New York, 1847. (1849.)
 English Tongue—the Teacher's Instructor in the Art of Spelling Improved. Boston, 1737.*
 English Tutor. London, 1747.*
 English-German and German-English Dictionary. Phila., 1834.*
 Engrafted Words of the English Language, Hand-book of. New York, 1854.*
 Epitome Historie Græcæ. (See Siret.)
 Englishman's Greek Concordance. New York.*
 Essentials of English Grammar. 3d edition, 1821.*
 Ethiopian Accordion Instructor. Boston, New York.*
 Ethiopian Flute Instructor. Boston, New York.*
 Ethiopian Violin Instructor. Boston, New York.*
 Etymological Dictionary of English Language of Glasgow Deaf and Dumb Institution. Glasgow, 1834, (MS.)
 Etymological Class Book. Philadelphia.*
 Exempla Minora, or English Examples. New Haven, 1st American edition, 1921. 2d edition, 1823.
 Excerpta Latina. New Haven, 1836. (Boston)
 Excerptæ ex Ovidio, Tibullo, et Propertio. Glas., 1828.
 Excerpta quedam e Scripioribus Latinis probatoriibus. Boston, 3d edition, 1827.*
 Exercises in Orthography. (P. P. G.) Prov., 1836.
 Exercises in Grammar. (C. E. Beecher.) Hartford, '29.
 Exercises in False English. Leeds, 12th edition, 1806.
 Exercises in Reading and Speaking. Alabama Series, 1844.*
 Evangelical Instructor. Boston, 1829.*
 Familiar Lessons on Physiology. New York.*
 Family Instructor.*
 File Instructor. Hallowell.*
 First Book of Arithmetic. Dublin, 1841.
 First Book of Reading Lessons, (Brothers of Christian Schools.) New York, 1854.
 First Exercises in Light, Color and Shade. (H. Cole.) London, 1840.
 First Footsteps in the Way of Knowledge. New York, 1836.*
 First Notions of Singing and Elocution. Warrington, England, 1857.
 First Lessons in English Grammar. Boston, 1st edition, 1842.*
 First Reading Lessons for Children.*
 First Lessons in the History of the United States. Boston, 1856.
 First, Second, and Third Books of History combined with Geography. Boston, 1852.*
 First, Second, and Third Reading Books. New York, 1845.*
 First Thoughts; or Beginning to Think. New York.*
 First Lessons in Moral Philosophy. New York, 1848.
 First Lessons on the Great Principles of Religion. New York, 1845.*
 First Lessons in Intellectual Philosophy. (Edited by Blaisdale.) Boston, 1820.
 First Lessons in Chemistry. By Uncle Davy. St. Louis.*
 First Steps in Thorough Bass and Harmony. New York.*
 First Book, or Spelling Lessons for Primary Schools. Boston, 1853.*
 Five Hundred Questions on Chemistry, New Haven, 1825.*
 Forum Orator. Boston, 1804.

Fourth Class Book. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, 1829. Springfield.*
 Four Gospels in Greek, with Lexicon. Boston, 1804.*
 Flageolet Pæceptor. Hallowell.*
 Flute Instructor. Hallowell.*
 Flute without a Master. New York.*
 Franklin Globe Manual. Troy.*
 Franklin Family Primer. Boston, improved edition, 1812.
 Franklin Primer, Lessons in Spelling and Reading. (S. Willard.) Greenfield, 1826.
 French Genders Taught in Six Tables. Boston, 1827.*
 French Lessons for Beginners. Philadelphia.*
 Friendly Instructor. 7th edition, Phila., 1771.
 Genders of French Nouns. Boston, 1836.*
 General Class Book. (S. Willard.) Greenfield, (1828,) 1829. 3d edition, 1830.
 General Principles of Grammar. London, 1847. Philadelphia, 1847.
 Geography of Scotland and Ireland. London, '52.
 Geographical Questions for the use of Schools. Middletown, 1825.
 Gentlemen's Complete Military Dictionary. Boston, 1759.*
 Gentleman and Lady's Key to Polite Literature. London, 1780.
 Georgia Table Book. New Haven.*
 German without a Master, in six Easy Lessons. (A. H. Montieth.) Phila.*
 Goodly Prymer. (A.) London, 1535.
 Go-wana Gwo-ih, &c. Seneca Spelling Book. Buffalo Creek, Miss., 1849.*
 Gleanings from the Poets. (Mrs. Lowell.) Boston, 1855.
 Græcæ Grammaticæ Rudimenta. (Eton Greek Grammar.) Eton, 1796.
 Gradus ad Parnassum. London, 1819.
 Same. Edited by A. Dickinson. Edinburgh, 1821.
 Grammar of the Greek Language. (Gloucester.) Boston, 1st edition, 1800. 2d edition, 1805.
 Same. Revised by G. Ironside. New York, 4th edition, 1820.
 Grammar of the Pmongwe Language. New York, 1847.*
 Grammar with Cuts. Boston, 1830.*
 Grammar Scholars' Abecedary. London, 1671.*
 Grammar without a Master. New York.*
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XV. EDUCATIONAL MISCELLANY AND INTELLIGENCE.

DR. HERMANN WIMMER, author of a valuable volume on the Church and School of North America, (*Die Kirche und Schule*), and Professor of Languages in Krause's School at Dresden, Saxony, will receive into his family a few American boys, whose parents prefer to place them under his immediate supervision, both as to conduct and studies, while acquiring the German language and other branches of a liberal education, in the school of Krause, or other private schools, or in any of the higher public schools of Dresden. The charge for board, including supervision and instruction in the public schools, is three hundred dollars. Dr. Wimmer's residence is in a healthy and attractive part of the city. Further inquiries may be made of the editor of this Journal.

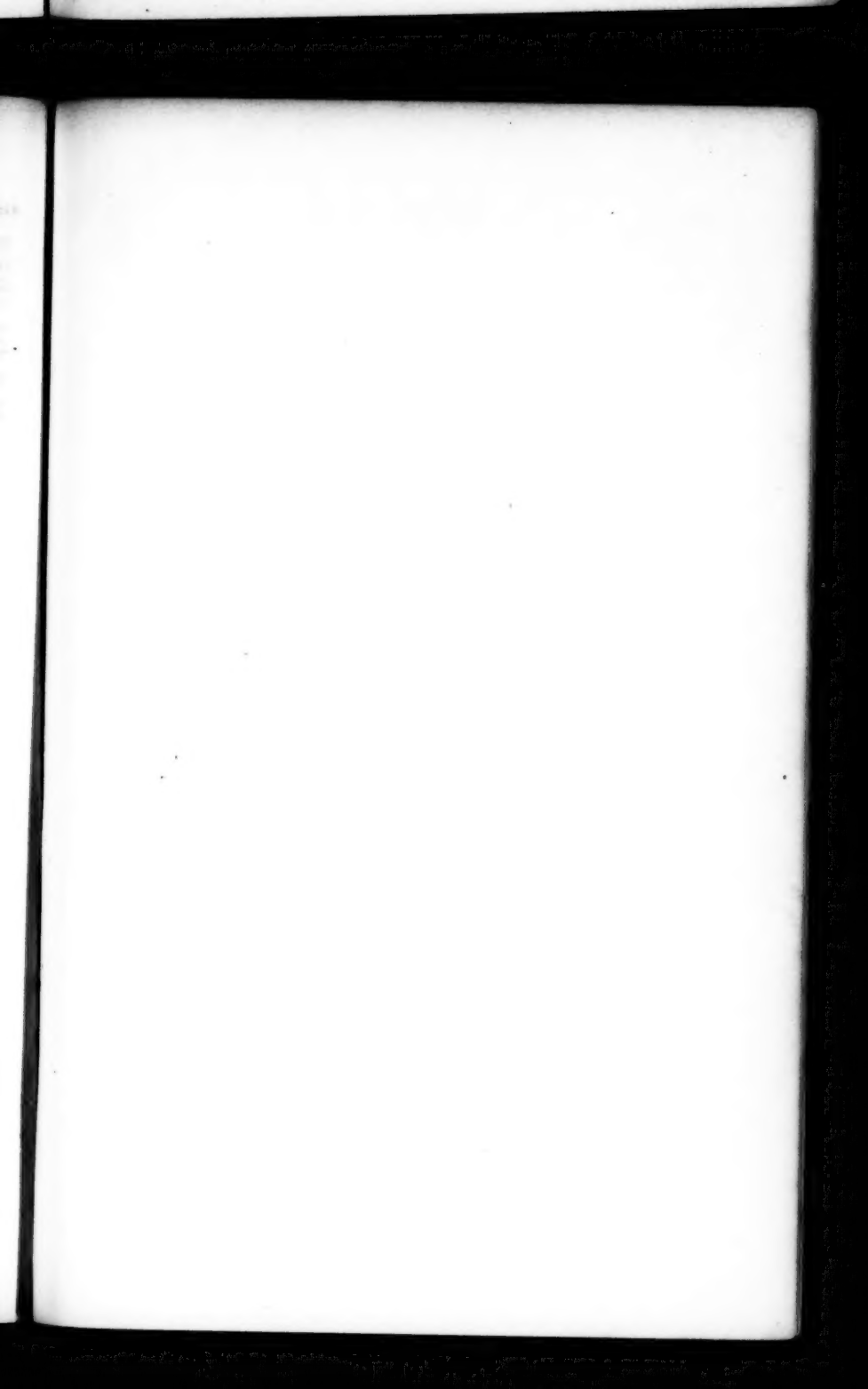
WILLIAM H. WELLS has resigned the office of Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chicago, which he has filled with so much usefulness to the schools, and honor to himself, to become an Insurance Agent—in the belief that a change of avocation will be beneficial to his health, impaired by more than thirty years devotion to school and educational labors. His remarks on taking leave of the Board of Education and the Teachers of the city, we shall transfer to our pages as a document of historical value, as well as for its personal interest. He is succeeded in the office of Superintendent, by Hon. J. L. PICKARD, of Wisconsin.

ENCYCLOLEXICON OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, is the title of a philological work which N. LAWRENCE LINDSLEY, LL. D., of Lebanon, Tennessee, has been engaged in preparing for the press for many years, and from which he has not been diverted by the din of arms. He brings to his undertaking an inherited delicacy and purity in the use of his native tongue—for we have had but few more correct and elegant speakers and writers of the English language than his father, the late President Lindsley, of Nashville University, and to his early and continued correct usage, he has devoted patient and critical investigation. Among our American scholars who have expressed both interest and confidence in the progress and success of the work, we notice the names of Mr. Everett, Rev. Dr. Halsey, of Chicago, Rev. Dr. Sprague, of Albany, Rev. Dr. Anderson, Tennessee, and the lexicographer, Dr. Worcester.

THE NATIONAL TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION at its late annual meeting at Ogdensburg, authorized and requested the Directors to include in the publication of the Proceedings, a Summary of the Proceedings of the State Teacher's Associations for 1864. It will facilitate the object, if the President or Secretary of each Association will forward to the editor of this Journal a brief summary in paragraphs, as follows:

1. Date of formation, number of meetings Annual and Special, prior to 1864.
2. Time and place of Annual and other meetings for 1864.
3. *Addressees.* Subject and author of each, with his name in full, Post-office address, and relation to schools and education.
4. *Reports and Essays.* Subject and author, &c.
5. *Discussion.* Subject, and participators in each.
6. *Resolutions, &c.*
7. *Officers for 1865.* Names in full, Post-office address, and relations to schools and education.
8. *Mode of Publication.*

In the absence of any State meetings, the proceedings of any County or City Association can be given.





Eng. by Geo. E. Reine, N.Y.

Yours truly
S. S. Greene

ENGRAVED FOR BARNARD'S AM. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

